The Nation

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Summary of the News

The reply of the United States to the German note of May 29 has not been published in time for comment in our columns this week. Its definite form was, however, decided on at the Cabinet Council on Tuesday and it is understood that it insists firmly on the position already taken by the President. Rumors of dissension in the Administration concerning the tenor of the note were confirmed on Tuesday night, when a brief announcement was given out that William Jennings Bryan had resigned from the office of Secretary of State. Mr. Bryan's letter of resignation to the President, and the latter's acceptance of his resignation, were published yesterday morning.

The correspondence, expressive of highest mutual esteem, reveals a fundamental difference in point of view on the question at issue—the negotiations with Germany—a difference which Mr. Bryan stated in an interview had "existed since the Falaba case." As the negotiator of the peace treaties which have formed his principal contribution to the policy of the Administration, Mr. Bryan is understood to have favored the German request that action in the case of the Lusitania should be delayed pending a discussion of the "facts," while the President evidently takes the view that the facts are sufficiently established. In this connection it may be mentioned that of the two persons who are said to have made affidavits to the effect that guns had been seen on the Lusitania before she sailed, one has since denied that he did so, and the other, despite the indefatigable efforts of an enterprising daily press, remains undiscoverable.

The President granted an interview to Count von Bernstorff on Wednesday of last week at which the German Ambassador is stated to have laid before Mr. Wilson the problems with which he has been confronted in communicating with his Government on account of the control of the cables by enemy Powers and the uncertainty of the wireless. For this reason Count von Bernstorff is said to have pointed out that he has been unable to make his Government fully acquainted with the state of public opinion in this country in regard to the torpedoing of the Lusitania. With the approval of the President, therefore, Dr. Meyer Gerhard sailed on June 4 for Denmark, en route to Germany, as the special agent of the German Ambassador to present his views on the question of the Lusitania to the Imperial Government.

A note from the German Minister for Foreign Affairs in respect to the incidents of the American ships Gulflight and Cushing was forwarded by Ambassador Gerard to the State Department on June 3. For the attack on the Gulflight the German Government expressed its regrets and declared its readiness to furnish full recompense for damages sustained by American citizens. In regard to the attack on the Cushing by a German aviator, the note, while admitting the possibility of such attack, states that it has not been possible to determine all the circumstances of the case, and invites the American Government to communicate the material which was submitted for judgment, "in order that, with this as a basis, a further position can be taken in the matter." Cable dispatches from Berlin of June 4 stated that Ambassador Gerard had called at the Foreign Office to request information as to the torpedoing of the American ship Nebraskan, on May 26, but was informed that the German Government had received no report of the incident.

The activity of German submarine warfare has increased, while its impartiality continues, except that American vessels during the past few days appear to have been slighted. Since we wrote last week thirty-six vessels have been reported sunk by torpedoes: twenty-seven British, of which nineteen were fishing vessels; one French; four Norwegian; one Swedish; one Belgian, and two Danish. A Portuguese ship was also chased by a submarine, but fired on the pursuer, and, according to the account of the captain, in all probability sank it.

In the air also the German fleets have been active. Following the Zeppelin raid on the outskirts of London on June 1, in which six non-combatant persons were killed, further raids took place over the east coast on Saturday and Sunday nights. On the last occasion the Admiralty stated that five persons were killed and forty injured. In the same statement announcement was made that early on Monday morning a British aviator attacked a Zeppelin between Ghent and Brussels, dropping bombs upon it from a height of 6,000 feet. The Zeppelin was blown up, and the entire crew perished.

Reports from Rumania reiterate that the entry of that country into the war is only a matter of time. The initial mobilization order was signed by the King on June 6, but it is asserted in some quarters that the participation of Rumania will not be decided on until after the harvest. Meanwhile a significant indication of the trend of popular opinion is the retirement of the pro-German Alexander Marghiloman from the leadership of the Conservative party.

The latest Power to join the belligerents is San Marino, which declared war against Austria on June 6. The forces fighting against the Teutonic Allies will not be materially increased by the accession of the small republic, but its position on a high plateau dominating Rimini might have made its continued neutrality troublesome to Italy. Another small country to be dragged unwillingly into the path of the tempest is the small principality of Liechtenstein, bounded by Switzerland, the Tyrol, and the Rhine, which on June 7 was formally declared by Austria to be within the zone of war.

The new coalition Cabinet in England met Parliament for the first time on June 3, when a bill was passed to relieve the new Ministers from the obligation of submitting themselves for reëlection to their constituencies. On Monday Mr. Asquith made a statement welcoming Italy into the war, and the second reading was passed of the bill establishing a Ministry of Munitions. In the course of the debate considerable opposition developed to any idea of introducing compulsion into the organization of labor. The Home Secretary, in charge of the bill, declared that there was "not the remotest intention to use the bill for the conscription of labor."

We comment in our editorial columns on the President's statement in regard to the Mexican situation, which was published on June 2.

Dispatches from Washington state that it has been definitely settled that the plan to send the Atlantic fleet through the Panama Canal next month for participation in the Panama-Pacific Exposition shall be abandoned and that the fleet shall remain in the Atlantic.

The United States District Court for New Jersey on June 3 handed down a unanimous decision refusing the petition of the United States Government to dissolve the United States Steel Corporation. An appeal to the Supreme Court will be taken by the Government. The suit was originally filed on October 26, 1911.

The Danish Parliament on June 5 unanimously passed the new Constitution conferring the suffrage on women and abolishing the special qualifications required for election to the upper house of Parliament.

Dispatches from Stockholm, under date of June 6, announced that a treaty was ratified in Petrograd last week between Sweden and Russia mutually acknowledging the financial, commercial, and industrial interests of the two countries.

M. Ribot, French Minister of Finance, introduced a bill in the Chamber of Deputies on June 3 providing for the appropriation of 5,600,000,000 francs provisionally for requirements in the third quarter of the present year. For the thirteen months of the war ending September 3, M. Ribot said, the total of appropriations made would amount to 24,000,000,000 francs.

Dispatches from Peking on June 7 tell of the signing of a treaty by representatives of Russia, China, and Mongolia, assuring the internal independence of the last country under the nominal suzerainty of China. Mongolia, after the Chinese revolution of 1912, declared its independence, and the treaty to determine its status has been under discussion for nearly a year.

The deaths of the week include: Eliot Gregory, June 1; Sir Arthur Herbert Church, Samuel V. Kennedy, Col. William E. Van Wyck, June 2; Charles Freeman Libby, Dr. Samuel Baldwin Ward, De Witt Clinton Blair, June 3; Rev. Timothy J. Brosnahan, S.J., June 4; Felix T. McWhirter, June 5; Rev. Jesse Burgess Thomas, Prince Camillo Rospigliosi, Senator Charles Camille Pelletan, June 6; Admiral Aubert, Dr. William H. Cummings, June 7.

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The Week

At first glance it would seem as if Mr. Wilson's warning to the Mexican factions had come at an inopportune moment. Why tell the warring parties to get together just when the problem appears in a fair way of being solved by the triumph of the Carranzistas? Of the fact that Villa has suffered another bad defeat at the hands of Obregon there is no longer much doubt. There is even good authority for believing that Villa has despaired or wearied of further resistance and has expressed a willingness to come to terms. Under such circumstances it might appear that Carranza would be justified in complaining that President Wilson's warning is only a way of coming to the rescue of the defeated Villistas, the implication being that before the warning was issued the White House had dependable information regarding the military situation in Mexico. It would seem as if the Administration's sympathy towards Villa, justified for a long time because he was apparently the only man strong enough to win a decisive victory and bring peace to Mexico, still lingered; and the Carranzistas might charge that, as between the two factions, Washington is not strictly neutral.

As a matter of fact, President Wilson's admonition is directed more to Villa than to Carranza. If, in issuing his caution, Mr. Wilson had knowledge of Villa's bad fortune, his course was extremely well advised. For the possibilities Washington had to face were these: Villa beaten, and his army scattered, could yet take to the hills and for an indefinite period continue a source of trouble. But guerrilla warfare on an appreciable scale is conditioned on financial aid from across the border, and, still more, on a supply of arms and ammunition. What Washington has virtually said to Villa now is that he cannot hope for such aid. A strict embargo on arms from this country would reduce his operations to mere banditry, and the recognition by this Government of Carranza would put the latter in a position to combat the last vestiges of rebellion. We have not found Carranza before this an easy man to deal with. Yet Washington may choose to overlook the rebuffs it has received from the self-opinionated old hidalgo, and choose to remember only the fact that he was the first to take the field against the assassins of Madero, that he alone derives his authority from something of a legal source, and that his very obstinacy reveals a firmness of character necessary in a man who is to pacify the unhappy country. Carranza, recognized by the United States, would be in a sounder position than Francisco Madero was after the retirement of old Porfirio; and this is what Washington would probably have Villa understand.

Thus it appears that the Note makes use of popular catchwords, rather than diplomatic logic.

So the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, the most sober of German press organs, characterizes our Lusitania note in a long, argumentative editorial, crammed with just that "logic" against which the outraged opinion of the world has protested and which the note so clearly expresses. The *Frankfurter* article bristles with hypothesis and conjecture. The Lusitania was an auxiliary cruiser; she had a Government subsidy; her name appeared in the navy lists. Whether she was armed or not on her last voyage is "a matter of utter indifference." The German Government cannot be expected to know just when "English warships" happen to have their guns on board. The Lusitania on completing her voyage "would again have been equipped with arms in England" and used as a warship against Germany. In any case, she had ammunition on board, and the explosion of such ammunition was responsible for the rapid sinking of the ship. And, finally, the grand principle:

> If that [the privilege of American citizens "to travel legitimately as passengers"] were right, Germany would have respectfully to allow every ship, filled to the rail with bombs for the destruction of our German soldiers, to enter the English ports, so long as it pleased a "neutral" American citizen to make the trip on board as a paying guest.

Diplomatic logic thus succeeds in conjuring up the image of a warship called the Lusitania, laden to the gunwales with bombs, and going to its destruction through an internal explosion of which the German torpedo, when you come to think of it, was the innocent cause! The world will never understand Germany as long as its fatal "logic" sees no difference between a warship laden with bombs and carrying an adventurous American passenger willing to take a chance, and the Lusitania, with its part cargo of small-arm ammunition and its unsuspecting freight of women and children. It is precisely against this spirit of logical ruthlessness which thinks no price too great to pay for any end, however small, that this country has protested. The rigid German logic sees no difference between sinking a shipload of war material with its crew, and sinking an insignificant amount of ammunition, with a pitiful slaughter like that off Kinsale Head. Such argumentation only reinforces the belief that it was not against the cartridge cases in the Lusitania's hold that the German torpedo was directed, but against the men, women, and children on board. The purpose was not to destroy munitions, but to create a state of terror. The more stress the *Frankfurter Zeitung* lays on "logic," the more the fear arises that there is no possibility of an understanding with the German mentality.

The full text of the reply of the German Government, in the matter of the Gulflight and the Cushing, reveals a diplomatic communication unexceptionable in both tone and substance. Germany apologizes and will pay damages. Nothing could be better; and the Administration naturally augurs hopefully from it as regards Germany's "final answer" in the case of the Lusitania. We have before pointed out how complete a reversal of position Germany has made as regards these neutral ships in the war zone. It will doubtless be much harder for her to recede in the instance of the Lusitania. Incidentally, the admission by the German Foreign Office of "mistake" in the torpedoing of the Gulflight strongly bears out President Wilson's contention that it is virtually impossible for commanders of submarines to observe the law regarding visit and search.

A dispatch from The Hague represents Holland as now hoping that German demands for territory will be to the East, not the West. That would relieve Dutch anxieties, which would be inevitable in case Belgium were to be annexed to the German Empire. But the Dutch would do well to recall a story told in the memoirs of Count Beust. He had a talk with Bismarck after the Franco-Prussian war, in which he expressed the fear that united Germany might soon be casting envious eyes upon the German provinces of Austria. The Chancellor reassured him. The Germans had no ambitions that way; if they were to seek for any new territory at all, it would be in the direction of Holland. This was very comforting to Count Beust until, a few months later, he met in London the Dutch Minister. That official informed him of a confidential interview of his own with Bismarck. In it he made plain his apprehension lest Germany might be contemplating aggression upon Holland. "Not at all," said Bismarck. "If we take any more land at all, it will be the German provinces of Austria."

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One anomaly in the war situation is that Italy and Germany have not declared war against each other. From the Italian point of view such a step is not necessary, since officially Rome has no quarrel with Berlin, their former relations being merely changed by Italy's denunciation of the Triple Alliance. But Germany is tied to Austria in an alliance defensive as well as offensive, and would seemingly be bound to take up her ally's quarrel. A Geneva dispatch by way of Paris makes the situation stranger than ever. The German Government is said to have addressed to the Italian Government, through the Swiss Legation at Rome, a demand for indemnity for damage done to German property in the course of anti-German riots at Milan. It is hard to assume that this is one way of letting Rome know that Berlin does not consider herself at war with Italy. More reasonable is the supposition that the demand has been formulated in expectation of a refusal, to be followed up by a declaration of war by Germany unless Italy takes the first step. In any case, this seems to be unnecessary finessing for a people that professes to disdain the superficial courtesies of international procedure when it comes to the harsh necessities and realities of a situation. Were it not for the event reported from Geneva, one might think that Berlin's anger at Italy were such that it would not gratify the "blackmailer" with a declaration of war, but leave it to the other to come on when it chooses.

The projected Chinese-American Bank is only one phase of a movement for the development of trade between the two countries. The establishment of a steamship line under bi-national management is another phase of the scheme. Such a line, according to Capt. Dollar and others who are in touch with the question, would probably be under a Chinese charter, because of our unfavorable registry laws. This statement should be read in connection with much that was said during the recent Chino-Japanese controversy of Japan's hostile attitude towards American commercial interests in China. The hostility may be there, and Japan may not be averse to exercising pressure in favor of her own manufacturers and bankers. But at the same time, whenever we complain about the menace to the Open Door in China from the side of Japan, we might ask ourselves how much we are doing for ourselves in order to keep the door open. Can the conquest of China's trade or of any foreign trade be achieved with our shipping laws what they are? Japan has openly stated that she intends to make full use of the advantages she enjoys in her proximity to China, her racial affiliations, and her special position in South Manchuria. She did not mention the advantage she enjoys as against us in the matter of our merchant shipping. Yet these laws, being self-imposed, offer as legitimate opportunity to Japan as any of those to which she has laid claim.

It is an encouraging view of the effect of the decision in the United States Steel suit upon combinations for foreign trade that was taken last Friday by two witnesses before the Federal Trade Commission. President Ring, of the American Exporters' and Importers' Association, testified that it "will go far towards ending the fear among manufacturers and shippers that in combining to obtain foreign trade they run the risk of prosecution." General Manager Slechta, of the Brazilian Lloyds steamship line, stated that the decision was proof conclusive that no amendments to the Sherman law were needed to empower manufacturers to unite in establishing selling-machinery abroad. The significance of such opinions lies in the fact that time is now all-important in seizing the opportunities of foreign trade offered by the war, and a wait for the necessary Congressional modification of the anti-Trust statutes might be a long one. In the past the organization of joint agencies abroad by companies competing in the United States has not been unknown. The practice enables manufacturers of slender resources to find representation in countries where the maintenance of their own agents would be impossible; and it puts them on an equal footing with nations like Germany, where the Government has actively encouraged such co-operation. Previous witnesses before the Federal Trade Commission have given testimony to the unanimous desire of American business men for more unhampered privileges in jointly seeking international markets.

Conservation of natural resources need not stop with saving the tree from the unthrifty lumberman; much can be done at the other end of the line. A chemist has found that in Louisiana the products of the average yellow-pine tree run as follows: Needles and twigs, 2.25 per cent.; limbs under three inches, 2.54 per cent.; cord wood, 6.42 per cent.; pulp wood, 4.54; red and rotten, 8.05; slabs, edgings, and trimmings, 18.07; sawdust and shavings, 17.62; lightwood, .61; stump, 6.48; lath, 1.39; shingles, .06, and lumber and box shooks, 31.97 per cent. Or, in sum, "two-thirds of the tree are at present wasted either as litter in the field or as mill waste! And three dollars a thousand is a good profit on lumber! While Northern paper-mills are paying on the average $18.37 for wood to make a ton of paper, the South is throwing away tens of thousands of cords of pulp wood every day, only a cord and a half of which is needed to make a ton of Kraft paper worth seventy dollars." If ever the expert attains the position among us that he has long held abroad, it will be because he is shrewd enough to point his exposition with a dollars-and-cents moral.

The statement that the Argentine Government is to coöperate in the erection of ten thousand homes for workingmen in Buenos Ayres, one of its contracts having just been let to a New York company, is a reminder how fast is decreasing the list of nations in which not even the cities have undertaken this form of social activity. Chili, Brazil, Cuba, and Colombia have all carried out large housing projects, and Salvador, Peru, and other Latin-American countries have plans under way. The houses in Buenos Ayres are to be built by contractors with money borrowed from the Government, and raised by bond issues. They are to be sold, preferably, to Government employees, on an instalment plan whereby the purchaser pays $23.65 per month until the total mortgage of $2,580 has been lifted. In other provinces less expensive houses are building, enabling workmen with incomes of no more than $100 per month to buy. It might be thought anomalous to find these New World nations of wide spaces carrying out housing acts as zealously as England or Germany; but a report on the economic condition of four hundred typical laborers in Buenos Ayres recently showed that 341, with their families if any, lived each in a single room, 39 in two rooms each, 14 in three rooms each, and but six in four rooms.

The report of the Carnegie Foundation upon teachers' and other civil pensions contains a solemn warning against action taken hastily and without a clear idea of the objects to be obtained. It points out that the rapid development of pension systems has often been accompanied by an utter disregard of the simple mathematical principles involved; and that the last few years have seen the collapse, or imminent collapse, of a number of recent date. Investigation in such cases shows that most of the mistakes could have been avoided by obtaining actuarial advice. Some systems are hastily put upon

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the statute books to procure an early measure of relief for aged employees; some to make possible the shelving of the incapable and superannuated; some in the hope that a small initial fund may somehow be increased. In many cases the "pension schemes" would be much better if called merely relief funds, offering retirement-pay not upon fixed rules, but upon the judgment of a board. Systems based upon rigid methods must provide an adequate reserve; must allow for the enormous variations possible in vital statistics; must foresee the heavy initial drain resulting from the payment of pensions to those already in the service who will retire after few or no payments; and must carefully define retirement by disability, and protect the fund against abuses from this cause. Disregard of these requirements has already involved actuarially various civil pension enterprises of Indianapolis, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, Denver, Dayton, and Milwaukee—not to speak of those of certain States.

In what is written and said of the late John W. Alexander, it is pleasant to note the emphasis upon the public spirit which animated that distinguished artist. He was not a man to shut himself up in his studio, year after year, to wreak himself merely upon self-expression. Ample recognition came to him, and his work was a joy to his heart; but he never forgot that art, in our day, is or ought to be "affected with a public interest." Hence the enthusiasm and zeal with which he labored unselfishly in many associations and societies with the object of spreading the knowledge of art and improving the popular taste. Artistic enjoyment he thought of as a thing not only for the specially trained and the collector, but for being extended in widest commonalty. His large sympathies, in all these matters, with his executive skill, gave him a distinct place in the world of American art—quite apart from his own achievement, which was notable—and makes his death a genuine public loss.

Stephen Phillips's new play, "Armageddon," has some of its scenes laid at the headquarters of a German general in Cologne, after its occupation by the Allies, and in the German Press Bureau. The scene of the prologue and epilogue is laid in Hell. The *Manchester Guardian*, in commenting on the play, cannot refrain from a subtle variation on a standard war-time joke when it remarks that "the language of Hell is blank verse." The only specific contribution one can recall to this highly interesting question of the infernal vernacular is supplied by Dante. At the beginning of the seventh canto of the Inferno, Pluto is speaking "in a clucking voice." His remarks have greatly interested the philologians, as Cary has pointed out. "Pape Satan, Pape Satan, aleppe," says Pluto. Some commentors have dismissed the words as gibberish—unenterprising commentators! Others find that Pluto was speaking French. It is well known that Dante studied in Paris and was an attendant at the law courts, where, at session opening, the crier's "Hear ye" in French took the form of "Paix! Paix!" and the whole Dantesque phrase would be "Paix, paix, allez, paix." Since a law of nature impels one commentator to say no to what another has affirmed, the line has been Gallicized into quite the opposite meaning: "Pas paix, pas paix, à l'épée!" war being the natural occupation in the infernal regions, as well as in the camps of the philologians.

It did not need Mr. Lloyd George to tell us that the Russian defeat in Galicia is mainly attributable to lack of munitions. Of men, despite enormous losses in slain and prisoners (there are said to be something like a million captured Russians in Germany to-day), there are plenty; the leadership of the Grand Duke and his Chief of Staff, as has been proved more than once in the earlier stages of the war, is not unworthy to be pitted against that of von Hindenburg and Mackensen. But the factories of Russia are comparatively insignificant, and with Archangel icebound during the winter, the only source of supplies was by the trans-Siberian railway from Vladivostok. When Japan began holding up munitions for her own possible use against China, the Russian retreat was made inevitable. The only question now is, when will it stop and what is the Russian capacity for offering further resistance? It seems probable that the end of the Teutonic drive in Galicia is in sight. Supplies are again going forward by the trans-Siberian route, and Archangel is open for traffic. Doubtless it will be several weeks before the full effects of the reinforcement of munitions can be felt, but not so long that the Teutonic allies can safely divert any considerable forces from the eastern front. The Russians will be doing their part in the war if they can continue to occupy the attention of some two million of the enemy's troops, and this task should not be impossible. Lemberg, gravely threatened as we write, is likely to be abandoned, but on the Bug River is a strong line of defence, which, with a line considerably shortened, the Russians may be expected to hold until the steady flow of munitions is once more resumed.

The official report of the progress of the Allied forces in the Dardanelles last week does not appear to accord with the confidence of Mr. Winston Churchill's speech at Dundee on Saturday. "The forces are within a few miles of a victory such as this war has not seen," Mr. Churchill declared, and his words were unanimously taken, as Mr. Churchill must have known that they would be, as foreshadowing a successful issue to the operations in the Dardanelles within a short period. On Monday came the official report of the offensive of the Allies on Thursday and Friday of last week, recording a gain, after stubborn fighting, of some five hundred yards over a three-mile front. In the trench warfare into which the fighting in the Dardanelles, as in Flanders, has developed, five hundred yards represents a very considerable advance, but progress at this rate does not bring Mr. Churchill's prophecy of victory "within a few miles" very near to realization.

A careful reading of the official report gives no grounds for great encouragement. The history of recent British attacks in Flanders seems to have repeated itself in Gallipoli. In many parts of the line further advances were made, but these were nullified, and the ground gained at severe cost had to be abandoned, because in one place the preliminary bombardment had failed to level the wire entanglements, and troops which had advanced victoriously to right and left of this position, finding themselves enfiladed by the fire of the enemy, were compelled to retreat to the first line of trenches gained. Nevertheless, except on the supposition that the gods have determined to destroy Mr. Churchill, it need not be assumed that his sanguine statement is disproved by the official report. He spoke on Saturday night, and at the time, therefore, was almost certainly aware of the results of the fighting of the previous two days. On what solid ground his statement was based one can only speculate. Perhaps an Italian force is about to take a hand in the operations in Gallipoli; perhaps we may look for important developments in Bulgaria. At all events, unless Mr. Churchill's apparently somewhat rash prophecy shall be justified by the event, it is probable that his usefulness as a Cabinet Minister, even as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, will be seriously impaired.

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NOT TWO GOVERNMENTS, BUT TWO MORALITIES.

The tenor of President Wilson's reply to the latest German note is not in doubt. It will certainly state again, and perhaps with added emphasis, the principles upon which this country bases its protests and demands. Those principles are good not only in law but in morals. Indeed, it is the moral aspect of the entire stand of our Government in the controversy with Germany which overshadows every other. The differences between the United States and Germany can be stated in terms of international law. So stated, our case is good. But the dispute can also be thought of as involving, not merely two Governments, but two moralities. So conceived, our case is even better.

It would be tedious to go over the points of law again. The gist of the German offence, legally considered, is to be found in the frank assertions of the Foreign Minister's reply to our Government. Germany, he declared, believes that she is acting in "just self-defence," when she does such things as sink the Lusitania without warning. Herr von Jagow also squarely gave notice that "German commanders are no longer in a position to observe the rules otherwise usual." The legal issue could hardly be put in a more clean-cut way. The challenge of the rules of war is absolute. What our Department of State asserted months ago is now confessed by the German Government: it is following a course wholly "unprecedented" in naval warfare. To hold it strictly accountable for any harm which results to Americans, in property or in life, is the plainest duty of their Government. There need be no fear that the President will withdraw or modify one word of what he has said on that subject. Buttressed as he is by the law of nations, he is certain to stand firm for American rights under it.

More important, however, are the moral doctrines that lie behind the precepts of international law which bear on the controversy. The rules of war undertake to regulate the application of brute force. A nation in battle on land or sea has the physical power to do certain things which it is morally forbidden to do. This suggests the two moralities now in collision. On the American side we have the contention that force is not everything; that there must be regard for the laws of war and a decent respect for the opinion of mankind. But more and more the German theory and the German action have been inclining to the view that, in war, no nation has rights which another nation is bound to respect—provided it is strong enough to defy the consequences. That this is not purely an exaggeration of Germany's enemies, is indicated by the fact that it is no more than is avowed by some of her friends and admirers. Take, for example, the book of the Swedish traveller, Sven Hedin. By favor of the Kaiser, he went to view the work of the German army in Belgium; and was moved by what he saw to exclaim in praise of what he calls "a moral judgment now being passed over Europe." It is passed, of course, by Germany, but what is it? It is, writes Sven Hedin, a moral judgment which cries:

> Woe to the people which has not in time put its house in order, or which relies on paper treaties and declarations when force sits in the judgment-seat, and when none but the strong and wakeful inspire respect in *all* directions.

Is it not true that the American moral judgment revolts against that? If our system of public morality were not in direct conflict with this one asserted of Germany, should we not think it time for us to curse God and die?

We must remember, too, that this doctrine of limitless force grows by what it feeds upon. It passes easily from one outrage to a blacker one. Champions of brute force, if let to run their course, are always saying that the reason they did not succeed was that they did not begin early enough to make themselves terrible enough. They will talk of their "misplaced leniency." The true way is the sharp and cruel. Murmurs of that sort have been heard coming out of Berlin; and our point is that if the United States and other neutral nations do not give Germany to understand the full and intolerable horror of the Lusitania, and its grave international consequences, we do not know what excess of brutality we may next have to face. If we do not check the policy of "frightfulness" now, it may take on a still more desperate nature.

From the first, the strength of President Wilson's position, fronting Germany, has been a moral strength. This has been gratifyingly recognized by other nations. They have perceived that the United States was moving in defence not only of its own rights, but of those of all the world. It is a voice for humanity as well as for justice that our Government has raised. And when that is true, there cannot be two sides to the conflict, or any doubt what will be its issue. The Prime Minister of England closed a recent speech in the Guildhall by saying: "We have noble comrades in arms, but we have other great allies; none the less potent because they are invisible, among them man's unconquerable mind." The obvious reference was to Wordsworth's sonnet to Toussaint l'Ouverture, from which any man or nation going forth to face a system of morality based on force may derive good cheer:

> —thou hast great allies;
> Thy friends are exultations, agonies,
> And love, and man's unconquerable mind.

THAT "SECRET TREATY."

A myth once started is not only difficult to stop in its career among the credulous. They improve it, as it passes through their hands; enlarge it, embroider it, add new imaginings, and replace broken-down lies with fresh ones. Thus we have, by way of the *Vossische Zeitung*, the latest version of the secret treaty between the United States and England and France. It did not, it seems, expire in 1900, as has been intimated by its original begetter, Prof. Roland G. Usher. It was renewed by Roosevelt when he was President, who thereby made himself the "henchman" of Great Britain. Moreover, it was this secret treaty that was really the cause of the Progressive party coming into existence, since it was necessary, under the treaty, for Roosevelt to fight Taft in 1912, "with the object of bringing America round to the side of Russia, England, and France in the present war." Thus the story prattles on, in a way, we are sure, to make Professor Usher green with envy.

His first assertion of such a secret "understanding," in his book, "Pan-Germanism," was a most reckless thing to have been done by a professor of history, supposedly familiar with our Constitution and the long practice under it. The mischief arose, not from his affirming it, but from his doing it in a volume which had a lucky success, in consequence of the war, and which thereby seemed to erect its author into a real authority. He has been gravely taken as such in his magazine writings about economic conditions in Germany, and about the tremendous war, previous to annexing all South America, in which the United States will soon be engaged with the victor in the European struggle. But neither in these articles nor in his book does the attentive reader find the careful documenting, the sifting of evidence, or the guarding against sweeping statements, which mark the sober inquirer. Professor Usher impresses one as prone to make a lot of guesses. When some of them turn out to be singularly fortunate, they are supposed to float all the rest.

But none of his guesses in "Pan-Germanism" are really buoyant enough to keep

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above water his tale of the secret treaty. He hedged it about with what was, for him, unusual caution. "No papers of any sort were signed"; and such pledges as were mutually given were only of the sort which "any one of the contracting parties" would feel justified in "denying or possibly repudiating." Still this mysterious agreement was there, to the effect that "in case of a war begun by Germany or Austria for the purpose of executing Pan-Germanism, the United States would promptly declare in favor of England and France, and would do her utmost to assist them." Various explanations have been put about of the way in which the hitherto unknown St. Louis professor got hold of this wonderful discovery. One story was that he had it from President Eliot, who in turn had it from Roosevelt. But Professor Usher wrote a letter to the New York *Times* a month ago disclaiming any such extraneous aid in his great flight of imagination. But he added that what he had written about the secret understanding "was meant to apply to the situation from 1897 to 1900." Are we then to understand that the treaty is now dead? It is easy to believe this of something that never lived. For it cannot too plainly be said that all this talk of any such concealed agreement, now or at any time, is preposterous nonsense.

The damage done by it is not in this country. We Americans know how to laugh at such solemn oracles—these unearthings from the hidden archives of things that were never there. We also know something about the way in which things are done by our Government. But abroad, especially on the Continent, all this is not so well understood. There they are more used to the sapping and mining of diplomacy, and might be led by a learned American professor to believe that the United States, too, has secret treaties tucked away in its pigeon-holes. Germany and Russia and France and Great Britain have been doing it for years, so why not America? Bismarck always had a secret treaty or two up his sleeve—first making a treaty of "insurance" and then one of "reinsurance," with secret clauses to the published documents; and hence German newspapers, and writers like Count Reventlow, may be forgiven for swallowing stories about McKinley or Roosevelt having struck hands in the dark with France and England.

Such fairy-tales ought not to be circulated in American nurseries. What the Government of the United States can do, and what it cannot do, in all this matter of treaties, is a part of our common coinage. The attempt to debase it ought not to be made by spreading around vague reports as if they were well-ascertained facts, and by passing along cock-and-bull stories as if they were entitled to wear the garb of history. Americans of mature age will not be deceived; but children and foreigners may be. For this reason we hope that Professor Usher will be content to be astonished at his own moderation in not bringing out more secret treaties—as he so easily might have done.

IGNORANCE ON THE OTHER FOOT.

In the early months of the war, there was constant complaint by German sympathizers that Americans did not know what was actually going on in Germany. Now the thing is reversed. Germany, we are told, is in ignorance of American feeling, especially American feeling about the Lusitania. This is understood to be one of the topics touched upon in the conversation between Count Bernstorff and President Wilson. The German Ambassador is said to have explained his difficulty in sending official dispatches to Berlin, the consequence being that neither his Government nor the German people was in possession of full knowledge of the American point of view. It is stated, on what appears to be official authority, that our Government offered to aid the German Ambassador in forwarding through Mr. Gerard to the Berlin Government whatever information Count Bernstorff desired to send. The situation is curious, in any reading of it; and prompts the inquiry just how much the German public knew, or was permitted to know, about the effects of the sinking of the Lusitania.

At least a partial answer is to be had by scrutiny of the files of the German newspapers for ten days after the Lusitania tragedy. The issues of the *Berliner Tageblatt* and the *Frankfurter Zeitung* for that period are now at hand, and examination of them certainly indicates that very little of the immense echo caused throughout the world by the torpedoing of the Lusitania was allowed to reach their readers. Many reasons for this suggest themselves. At that time the Italian crisis was uppermost, and had first place in the news and in editorial discussion. Moreover, the Government censorship was plainly at work. The official view of the sinking of the Lusitania was given to the press on May 12, and that was supposed to be the end of debate; departure from it would be perilous, as was made evident just then by the suspension of the Berlin *Post* for indiscreet publications on another subject. Finally, there can be no doubt that the German newspapers are much hampered in getting through dispatches from abroad. Yet it would appear that they do get through easily some things which their Government would like them to print. This again hints at censorship.

One thing is clear. Something like an order of the day was issued to the effect that, in all newspaper discussion of the Lusitania disaster, it was to be taken for granted that she was an armed auxiliary cruiser. We have already quoted the *Frankfurter Zeitung's* statement that the Lusitania had twelve 15-centimetre guns. The *Tageblatt* of Berlin was less explicit, but asserted that the passengers who were lost, and whose sad fate it deplored, had recklessly embarked upon "a ship of war of a belligerent." As for the official statement issued by the Government, its explanations on this point of armament were rather vague and quite inconclusive. It affirmed that, as a general rule, English ships engaged in trade could no longer be treated as merchant vessels, since they were "usually armed" (*gewohnheitsmässig armiert*), and besides had threatened to ram German submarines. This made the ordinary visit and search impossible. Besides, as regards the Lusitania, "the English press made public the fact that she carried very powerful guns." On the basis of such evidence, the official German communiqué to the press gravely concluded that, in consequence of the ship's being armed and laden with munitions of war, "the responsibility for the loss of the passengers, so deeply lamented by the Imperial Government, must rest exclusively upon the Royal Government of Great Britain."

Berlin having thus spoken, it was natural that the press should have considered the case closed. Yet the newspapers were dimly aware that the United States was not disposed to accept the *ipse dixit* of the Kaiser. Certain telegrams reflecting the state of mind in this country were printed. Thus the Germans knew early of Col. Roosevelt's assertion that the sinking of the Lusitania was "pure piracy." More curious is the fact that the pointless talk of Senator Stone, in half-justification of the murder of Americans on the Lusitania, was promptly cabled to the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. It published it under the heading: "An Intelligent Statement." This looks, as we remarked above, as if the censorship winked benevolently at matter favorable to the German contentions. But it is only fair to add that the *Frankfurter's* dispatches of May 11 and May 12 gave its readers to understand that there was

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great excitement in Washington and New York; that President Wilson was being deluged with letters and telegrams urging him to act; and that it was even rumored that he would break off diplomatic relations with Germany. The latter news came by the way of Paris, and the *Frankfurter Zeitung* put over it the incredulous headline, "Perhaps."

President Wilson's note of May 13 to the German Government was not published in the German press until May 18. It is plain that the public in Germany had been left in pretty dense ignorance of American opinion. The English papers from May 8 to May 10 were filled with dispatches reporting the strong and unanimous expressions of the American press. These must have reached Germany by mail via Holland in two or three days. Yet not a word of it all, so far as we have been able to discover, was republished. Nor was any hint given of the tremendous revulsion of feeling among German-Americans, after the Lusitania crime. It is only just to infer, therefore, that Germany was much in the dark. But light is coming. It will be thrown not only by the facilities for communicating with Berlin which our Government is now putting at the disposal of the German Ambassador, but by the reiteration of the President's strong and sound position, which he is to make in a day or two.

THE ELEVENTH MONTH.

Ten months after Great Britain declared war against Germany, the British public is just beginning to realize, what thoughtful observers have known for some time, that if the war is to be won by the Allies it is mainly England's business; not only on the sea, but on land. Lloyd George's urgent appeal to the nation is more panicky than the situation warrants, probably more disturbed than that statesman is at heart. But the fervent Lloyd Georgian rhetoric, coupled with the fact of Russian collapse in Galicia, must make it plain to the English nation how serious is the problem that confronts it. The moral effect of the recapture of Przemysl is unmistakable when an English newspaper—even if it is the *Daily Mail*—can write that "the contest if now stopped would be in favor of the Austro-German alliance." This may or may not be true. What is certainly not true is the *Mail's* statement that "this war is not a British war primarily, and our gallant ally across the Channel must always figure as the senior partner in the enterprise." It is England whom Germany regards as her arch-enemy from the beginning, and it is England whom the facts of the war have now made the leader in the fight. She has hitherto borne the brunt of the financial problems of the Allies, and she has won the war for the Allies on the sea. She will now have to take over the heaviest part of the work, or surely as heavy a part as France, on land. For, as the situation is to-day among the Allies, the Russians have spent themselves for some time to come, the French have given pretty nearly to the limit of their powers, and from England must come primarily the millions of troops to win the contest, if it is to be won at all.

Once this fact is recognized, it is possible to estimate the full meaning of the Austro-German victory in Galicia. Important as its direct military results may prove to be to the Teuton cause, the indirect results are by no means so serious for the cause of the Allies as they appear to be. For, primarily, the indirect effect must be to spur England to greater exertions, and, above all, to count upon herself. For so many Russian army corps put out of action, there must be put into the field so many English army corps of a better fighting quality than the Russians; and England has the men. If Russian resources in arms and ammunition have been depleted, English resources must take up the strain; and England's resources, though slow in mobilization, can match in the last instance with Germany's own. To-day the immediate military situation on land is more discouraging for the Allies than at any time since the battle of the Marne. And yet before the Germans were driven back by Joffre, when it seemed as if Paris might fall to the Kaiser and the French armies be reduced to impotence, England must have contemplated the necessity of carrying on the fight on her own account. Since the Marne there have been moments when the French and the Russians did so well as to make England's task seem a comparatively simple one. To-day there is a return to the situation before the Marne; not that the French have been reduced to helplessness, or that the Russians are by any means to be counted out of it, but because the display of German energy has been such as to call for every ounce of effort that each one of the Allies can put forth.

The English have been learning; slowly, after the traditional fashion, but learning nevertheless. Long ago they had learned not to underestimate the German resources. To-day England knows that there is such a thing as German resourcefulness, German wits, as one English writer puts it. It is pathetic now to recall the opinions of military observers for years before the outbreak of the war concerning the capacities of the German machine. German discipline, German thoroughness and preparation were admitted, but always the point was stressed that the Kaiser's army was stale, complicated, lacking in flexibility. If in case of war things went well according to plan from the beginning, the Kaiser might win. If a hitch occurred, the machine would break down, for the simple reason that a machine cannot think. That the German military leaders can think has been shown before this, and the victory in Galicia is a complete demonstration. For what Germany is doing to-day is precisely the opposite of what she set out to do at the beginning of the war. Then the aim was to settle France swiftly and deal with Russia at leisure. To-day the purpose is to settle Russia swiftly and deal with the western Allies at leisure. Germany began by attacking in the west and standing on the defensive in the east. She is now hitting out in the east and "standing pat" in the west. Virtually, Germany has swapped horses while crossing the stream, a feat that argues brains as well as will and preparation.

The results in Galicia are impressive, but the effort that has gone into the blow must have been tremendous. New armies had to be created—for it is German arms, and not Austrian, that have won. A heavy price in lives has been paid for victory. Say that the Russian offensive has been broken for months to come and that the German armies can now be thrown against the Allies in the west, the problem in the west is more formidable than ever for Germany. It has to face France still resolute, England with ever-increasing forces, and Italy. Mr. Ridder may speak exultantly of Germany's proceeding to lop off Italy now that she has lopped off Russia from the Allied battle-front. If it has taken ten months to dispose of Russia temporarily, how long will it take to put Italy out of the fight? How long can the effort be kept up? And by the time Italy, for argument's sake, is disposed of, what of the English millions in Flanders and Belgium?

In Italy, as a matter of fact, we find a fair index of what the actual outlook is in Europe to-day. Let it be recalled that Italy entered the war on May 20, when the full effects of the German victory in Galicia were perceptible; that she left the Triple Alliance on May 4, some days after Germany announced the shattering of the Russian line in Galicia. Italy may have received her price from the Allies, but what price could have induced her to go in on the los-

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ing side? So to-day Rumania is bargaining with Russia; but if the cause of the Allies were on the decline, would there be any bargaining at all? Only this week we learn of the conclusion of a commercial treaty between Sweden, the one country that was definitely pro-German at the outbreak of the war, and Russia, her hereditary enemy since the days of Peter the Great. If the Russian cause were thought to be even seriously imperilled, would Sweden choose that moment to enter into a compact with her ancient foe? The course pursued by Italy and Sweden and the run of sentiment in the Balkans indicate that these nations, closer observers of events than we can possibly be, have pretty well made up their minds which way the ultimate decision will incline.

THE DECISION FOR THE STEEL CORPORATION.

The decision in favor of the United States Steel Corporation by the Federal District Court at Trenton, N. J., in the suit against it by the Government under the Anti-Trust law, is not final. The case, it is known, will be appealed to the United States Supreme Court, which has before this reversed the lower courts in other anti-Trust cases. But the real importance of the decision lies in the fact that it brings distinctly before the highest court, if not some new considerations under the Anti-Trust law, at least some old considerations in a new light.

Every one who has studied the successive judicial interpretations of that law is aware that the basis and criterion of judgment as to violation of the statute have shifted materially since the Northern Securities decision of 1904. That "holding company" was declared repugnant to the Anti-Trust law, in spite of the fact that the company had actually performed no overt act whatever, beyond collecting dividends from subsidiary companies and re-distributing them to its own shareholders. The Court's majority opinion held, however, that the necessary purpose and inevitable result of lodging control of two parallel railways in the holding company were the stifling of free competition. Counsel for the company had admitted to the Court that, in theory at any rate, extension of the same machinery of control might bring all the railways in the country under the domination of one man or group of men.

The Standard Oil and American Tobacco decisions of 1911, however, rested wholly on grounds of improper practices and unfair competition in trade. To the precise form of the combination—an all-important fact in the Northern Securities decision—the Court paid little attention. The companies were declared to have used their large financial resources to suppress and kill off legitimate competition by expedients obnoxious both to fair play in business and to the purpose of the Anti-Trust law. They were accordingly dissolved, under regulations framed most carefully by the Court.

Thus the decision of 1904 seemed to make the potentiality of evil the test, while the decisions of 1911 directed themselves wholly to overt acts. There was, however, no real inconsistency in the two different grounds of judgment. Each had to interpret an elastic statute, and each had to apply that statute to the prevention of practices or tendencies dangerous, though in different forms, to the public welfare. But there had also, and necessarily, been a progressive interpretation of the law so as to settle what its inhibitions should not, as well as what they should, apply to. The decision in the Southern Pacific case plainly indicated that a combination of connecting railways was not open to the same objection as a combination of parallel and competing railways. The decisions of 1911 not only set forth, in line with Justice Brewer's opinion in the Northern Securities case (which determined the majority of the Court), that minor contracts in restraint of trade, "which the long course of decisions at common law had affirmed were reasonable," could not be deemed repugnant to the law, but they plainly intimated that the mere bigness of a company was not of itself an evidence of monopoly or monopolistic purposes. It is the last-mentioned view of the statute which finds particular expression in the opinions in the Steel suit.

This is why the final adjudication of this case will establish some new and important precedents. The lower court has not ordered the Steel Corporation to be dissolved because it is a "billion-dollar combination," and the Supreme Court is not likely to do so on that ground. The decision says emphatically:

> We dismiss once and for all the question of mere volume or bigness of business. The question before us is not how much business was done, or how large the company that did it; the vital question is, how was the business, whether big or little, done? Was it, in the test of the Supreme Court, done by prejudicing the public interests, by unduly restricting or unduly obstructing trade? The question is one of undue restriction or obstruction, and not of undue volume of trade.

But this left open the question whether the Steel Corporation, by its form of organization and its holding of the proprietary rights in eight or nine subsidiary companies —these being also combinations of yet smaller concerns—was not as repugnant to the law as was the Northern Securities. That combination had been dissolved because its machinery gave it the potentiality of monopoly. It could hardly be disputed that the same theoretical possibility existed with the Steel Corporation. But the steel combination has escaped because of the simple fact that, unlike the Northern Securities, it had performed overt acts and had outlined corporate policies, and had also carefully regulated those acts and policies—at all events, since the suit was brought—so as to give no ground for alleging from them a monopolistic purpose. The decision of last Friday mainly rested on the fact that, since its organization in 1901, the business done by the Steel Corporation had increased in a smaller ratio than the business of its independent competitors.

This established fact, and the equally known fact that the Corporation has never employed towards its competitors the oppressive methods of the Standard Oil and the American Tobacco, have stood it in good stead in this first judicial test, and may quite possibly win its case before the highest court. But it should be carefully observed that even this present decision is very far from vindicating all the previous practices, even of the Steel Corporation. The famous "Gary dinners," at which prices of steel were alleged to have been discussed and fixed by the Corporation and its independent competitors, are expressly declared in this opinion to have amounted "to a combination or common action forbidden by the law." They are not made a basis for an adverse decision of the case, solely because "the period of coöperation passed away before the bill was filed, and, as far as we can see, it is not likely to be repeated." So, also, the concurring opinion holds, regarding the steel combination, that "the intent of those forming it was to monopolize and unduly restrain trade," but that the purpose was abandoned at once in practice, through the force of circumstances.

The necessary inference from these limitations on the scope of the decision is that promoters or corporation managers who now assume—as some of them have lately seemed to be assuming—that the restraining and prohibitory force of the Anti-Trust law has been definitely removed, are arriving at very premature conclusions.

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Foreign Correspondence

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICA—THE COALITION CABINET—WOMEN IN WAR.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, May 21.

An article on America in the *Times Literary Supplement* for May 20 (probably, if I may hazard a guess, by Mr. Clutton Brock) will, I hope, be read by many Americans. Instinct with cordial friendship for America, it emphasizes the essential similarity of the English and the American character, extending to the possession of common faults as well as common virtues. Thus, the author draws a parallel between the attitude of moral superiority assumed by the United States at the beginning of this war with the similar attitude of Great Britain at the beginning of the Civil War. The article ends as follows: "We are shy of praising them [Americans] or speaking of our new feelings towards them, lest they should think that we are courting them. That we are not doing. They must determine their own policy, and we are not asking aid of any people, but we are grateful to them for the sympathy which, we feel, is coming from them to us, and we are proud of their recognition that we are still a great nation and worthy of our place in the world."

The announcement that a Coalition Ministry is to be formed has, in spite of a few preliminary whisperings, come finally with all the shock of a surprise. As a rule, the Unionist journals welcome it with more or less effusion, while the Liberal papers regret, or affect to regret, the loss of the useful criticism of a Front Opposition Bench. Irish opinion seems more or less indifferent; and there is no indication that any Irish leader will accept office. There is, I think, a general feeling of relief, even among those who will not publicly express it, that the impetuous Mr. Churchill is no longer likely to be seated on the powder-bags of the Admiralty. His admirable naval services before and after the beginning of the war have by no means been forgotten, but the feeling has grown that he had rather outlived his usefulness in this department. His ready coinage of phrases like "smoke the rats out of their holes" and "baby-killers" made the judicious grieve at an early stage of the war, and were felt not only to be unworthy of a Cabinet Minister, but to indicate a dangerous temperament. One point that has emerged conspicuously is the indispensability of Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey in their present posts. No more striking instance of journalistic ineptitude occurred in recent times than the attempt of a certain morning paper to forecast a reconstructed Cabinet with the part of Hamlet-Asquith left out.

One of the safest prophecies to make about the halcyon days after the war is that they will witness a great advance in the political and industrial status of women. Their services in this crisis have been so vast, so spontaneous, so efficient, so free from self-seeking, so oblivious of past grievances, that the note of masculine superciliousness, if ever again revived, will assuredly be drowned in a chorus of indignation and ridicule. It has been discovered, or for the first time publicly demonstrated, that women can admirably perform many functions formerly reserved for men; and this, among many other factors, will go far to improve their economic independence. If it has been proved that at the front man can get along pretty well without woman, it has been equally proved that his welfare there is very largely based on the efficiency of the women at home. Sex-antagonism, if such ever really existed, will hardly find foothold between comrades who have fought shoulder to shoulder through so gigantic and protracted a struggle. Woman has had, and still will have, to make many sacrifices to correspond with those made by the men in the field. There are those who believe she will have to realize that the duty of motherhood must be frankly accepted as a patriotic necessity, and that those who evade it merely on account of its interference with ease and liberty are just as much shirkers as the able-bodied young men who allow their brothers and cousins to do all the fighting.

It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of woman's services in the war. But some general classification of their activities, and the names of a few of the largest organizations, may be attempted. It should not be overlooked that the American women in England have been among the most active and effective of all. To name the Duchess of Marlborough, Lady Essex, Mrs. Lionel Guest, and Lady Paget is merely to indicate a few of the officers in a large and enthusiastic army corps.

One of the larger organizations busied with the employment of women is the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (president, Mrs. Henry Fawcett, LL.D.), the 600 branches and 52,000 members of which suspended their ordinary political work at the beginning of the war, and transformed themselves into an Active Service League for the relief of distress. The three basic principles of the Union in the task of finding employment for women are: Equal pay for equal work, the obtaining of proper conditions in housing and working premises, and the adequate training of women for remunerative occupations. Its activities are endless. Thus, it coöperates with the Board of Trade in making a register of women desirous of war service in such fields as farm and dairy work, leather-stitching, brush-making, clothing-machining, and light machining for armaments. This register now contains about 70,000 names. Another register has been opened for voluntary women workers. Much has been done to advocate the claims of women to a share in the higher walks of the Civil Service. In coöperation with the Women's Co-operative Guild, the Union has busied itself particularly with the care of young mothers and babies. It has opened several workshops for women, and has encouraged such new industries as the making of toys and fireless cookers. Its help has been of enormous importance in Belgian relief work of various kinds.

Like those of the National Union of Women Workers, the Women Police Patrols of the Suffrage Union have done excellent work among the girls in the neighborhood of military camps. There are now 11,000 Women Patrols. Among other measures, club-rooms have been opened, where the soldiers can meet their friends of the other sex under decent conditions. The urgent distress among professional women has been cared for in various ways. About 1,000 members of the National Union are engaged in Red Cross work. Three admirably equipped hospital units have been established by its Scottish Federation. One of them is now in Servia; another (under Mrs. Harley, a sister of Sir John French) is at the Abbaye de Royaumont, near Chantilly. The third, on its way to Servia, was commandeered by the War Office for the use of the wounded soldiers at Malta. In all, there are at least five military hospitals, equipped, organized, and staffed by women; two where at least half the staff are women, and three others equipped and organized by women. So excellent has been their work that Dr. Louie Garrett Anderson has been asked by Surgeon-Gen. Sir Alfred Keogh to organize and take charge of a military hospital of five hundred beds in or near London, and has for this purpose been accorded the rank of major.

A FRENCH VIEW OF GERMAN SCIENCE — PROFESSOR GAUTIER'S CONCLUSIONS.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, May 22.

One sure result of the conflict of nations is the challenge made to German "invincible" science. Ceaseless iteration of its all-conclusiveness had ended by awing the incapable nine-tenths of the world into silent acceptance; and the capable tenth had something else to do than to reduce its extreme claims to fit bounds. Nature herself, in the long run, brings such pretensions down to reality.

> Race after race, man after man,
> Have thought that my secret was theirs,
> Have dreamed that I lived but for them,
> That they were my glory and joy.
> —They are dust, they are changed, they are gone!
> I remain.

This, with allowances, is the judgment of the aged Armand Gautier, whose own work for fifty years has widened and renewed the field of biological chemistry. His discovery of ptomaines and leucomaines, and the consequence that man's sicknesses are for the most part poisonings, have played a great part in medical science and hygiene. Yet I remember an American university book on Sanitary Chemistry in which his name was not mentioned in a bibliography giving names of industrious Germans who had classified everything and discovered nothing. Professor Gautier writes in answer to an inquiry of the Paris *Figaro:*

"The German mind is cloudy and heavy, but analytical, methodical, patient, capable of interesting deductions and their indefinite applications. The German—and this is characteristic of him—is little fitted to conceive generalizations or create new ideas.

"Yet, since the German is tenacious and loves science and its profits, and since—thanks to his qualities, which are of secondary order, indeed, but very real—there has been formed in Germany an innumerable army of investigators; everything little by little is examined, tried, followed up, heavily, patiently, at length, so that they finish by getting at an explanation or desirable application. Such qualities of patience and perseverance are sometimes wanting to ourselves.

"This dense, misty, and somewhat mystic

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mind of the German is devoid of that native clearness and sense which directs towards truth, by natural instinct and at the first onset, the French, English, and Italian mind. Moreover, the German mind for more than a century has been worked upon, turned and twisted by the philosophic theories of the German universities. This is so much the case that nowadays historians, men of science, politicians, and critics—all who think and direct others in Germany—no longer admit first off what simple good sense shows to us. Worse yet, they distrust it or despise it. Living in a sophisticated intellectual atmosphere, . . . they accept as necessary, if not absolute, principles from which they draw consequences with imperturbable logic, only those pretended principles which flatter their pride or secure their own interests.

"We must not, however, believe that the German, even with his misty, paradoxical, ideologic mind, swollen with pride as it is, cannot, directly or indirectly, throw light on experimental or historical science. On the contrary, none is apter than he to accumulate data, measures, documents, and to follow out the applications which suit his own dogmatic and inquisitive mind, and, above all, his vanity or his interests. The German man of science, better than any other, fills up *the framework which others have constructed.*"

Professor Gautier gives a few examples of another class of minds, which he says have oftenest been French or English or Italian. They are "the great scientific minds which create, having the genius to bring the hidden relations of natural phenomena into a wide synthesis." Among those he names Harvey, Galileo, Spallanzani, Newton, Lavoisier, Pasteur, Berthelot—and, among the Slavs, Mendeleieff. "These strong founders of our sciences were not Germans." He renders due homage to "great scientific figures which rise up from time to time in Germany"—such as Kepler, Leibnitz, Helmholtz.

"Apart from such brilliant exceptions, the German mind remains deductive, fitter to follow up the rational consequences of a principle than to find the principle. Whether the idea it has in its possession is true or false, whether it comes to it from itself or from others, it sticks to it, and knows how to get out of it all the logical consequences it can give. Thus the idea of atomicity and the reciprocal saturation of material atoms was first introduced into chemistry by the Frenchmen, J. B. Dumas and Gerhardt, and the Englishmen, Williamson and Cooper; but from this idea Kekule (of Flemish origin) was able to draw deductions without number which have thrown singular light on a whole part of chemistry and have led us to a multitude of important discoveries in detail—but not to a single general law.

"Have you examined the fusee of the shell of the German 105 gun? It is as complicated as the works of a watch, comprising fifty-six pieces which work into one another before an explosion is effected. The German mind is like its bomb-shell—complex, *tarabiscoté,* often miscarrying, but ending with success by dint of efforts and time and patience."

The French man of science, probably from long and dolorous experience, now comes to the confiscation of other people's discoveries to the benefit of German science. This he attributes to the "modern German." He gives three examples:

"Every one knows the world of microbes discovered by Pasteur's genius. Well, in Germany it is R. Koch who is the first actor and prophet of it all. They do, however, acknowledge that Pasteur had priority over Koch in the treatment of rabies!

"A celebrated German physician and chemist, Stahl, towards the end of the seventeenth century imagined a theory of flame and fire. According to him, this phenomenon resulted from the loss by the burning body of a principle which he called 'phlogistic.' It was remarked to him that such a body, which, according to him, would lose something by burning, often on the contrary increases in weight. Stahl declared that weight is a thing altogether secondary and without interest in the study of chemical phenomena. Now Lavoisier, three-quarters of a century later, proved that, so far from losing anything, the burning body increases in weight because it unites with one of the elements of the air, oxygen; and his marvellous mind made of the consideration of the weight of bodies in chemistry the great criterion, the definitive method which, to this day, enables us to follow all the transformations of matter.

"Well, the too famous German chemist, W. Ostwald—he who is now known in chemistry by incendiary pastilles and liquids—has not hesitated to conclude that Lavoisier was only the pale imitator, or at most the continuator, of his own countryman, Stahl!

"Nowadays, the German man of science no longer cites, so to speak, in his memoirs, nor does he accept, any foreign work except that which satisfies his thesis or his interests. Everything else he attributes to himself or to his fellow-countrymen. The whole world knows that the surprising efficacy of organic arsenical compound bodies, which are now employed so successfully against tuberculosis, anæmia, malaria, trypanosoma diseases, and syphilis, was recognized for the first time in 1902 in France and published by our academies. Now Ehrlich, in his famous pamphlet which appeared six years later to advertise his 606, has been careful not to cite a single French name!

"With them, war and science are carried on in the same way—systematically."

The student of the history of science in its gradual progress will have many examples in mind to confirm the thesis of the French professor. This, quite apart from any national claims, is briefly: An undue monopoly has been created in the mind of the public and particularly in universities in favor of German science.

One French and one English work, each fundamental and "epoch-making" in its line, occur spontaneously. The first is Claude Bernard's "Introduction to the Study of Experimental Medicine." It would be difficult to estimate the influence of this book, which summed up the author's long life of experiment and observation and discovery, on the development of the theory and practice of medicine as it is to-day. The other is Clerk-Maxwell's book on "Electricity and Magnetism." The mathematics of his subject had been long since evolved; but he wrenched it violently back from a comparatively barren theoretical foundation to one which is more philosophical and leads further in practice. Without the theory of the non-German Clerk-Maxwell, there is little likelihood that the waves of the German Hertz would have been known.

India and the War

THE MEETING OF WEST AND EAST THROUGH THE PRESENT CRISIS AND THE FUTURE OF WESTERN IMPERIALISM.

By W. G. TINCKOM-FERNANDEZ.

From the ruck of the European conflagration India and the problems of near and far East suddenly emerge with a new significance, a political reality, that will call for sympathetic knowledge and a wider understanding in the immediate future. Arbitrarily defined by Kipling, the Western fancy has too long been dominated by a literary generalization: even Matthew Arnold's poetic vision of an absorbed, mystic East seems to be shattered. Perhaps never since Alexander and his governors projected a quasi-Greek influence into India has the genius of her peoples more poignantly felt a Western moral and political crisis. As a result of this cataclysmic contact, and the degree to which she is involved, a more human case for India and the Far East suggests itself to Western bureaucracy. In the future India may reasonably expect less misunderstanding at the hands of her academic government. Her case, in particular, has long cried for the psychological perception so necessary for its sheer and appalling complexity.

Composed of peoples essentially antipathetic by creed and race, India has always offered her conquerors the suggestion of *divide et impera:* it was inevitable that the British should avail themselves, more or less literally, of the Roman formula. But the disadvantage India has so long suffered through heterogeneity she has retrieved by a gradual accretion, as in her religious and philosophic ideas, by adopting that twentieth-century spirit now current in Japan and China. Now that the Western crisis has asserted itself sharply to the Oriental consciousness, imposing a vital and personal share in affairs west of Suez, a human equation is evident that may speedily crystallize for the West the ideals of India's diverse millions, and of the subject peoples of the East. For the first time in modern history the white man's "burden" has proved an effectual bulwark against his brother white: dark-skinned troops of India and the Far East, black troops of the hinterlands of Africa, have fought for and against Europeans, and have espoused a quarrel that is not their own. Naturally, the significance of this step has been exploited by the German Orientalists. Dr. Wilhelm Debelius, of Hamburg, and Professor von Wieser, of Düsseldorf, have both taken an illative interest in India's behalf. Assuming the eventual triumph of Germany and Turkey, Dr. Debelius is quoted by the *Literary Digest* as saying in the Berlin *International Monatschrift für Wissenschaft, Kunst und Technik:*

We may still hope to count upon native help in India, but this consummation can only be brought about by using measures of substantial justice. Among other considerations we may regard England's employment

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of Indian troops on the European battlefield as a blow to her national prestige. For the moment, however, this measure has been a successful piece of policy. The self-esteem of the Hindus has been flattered by the call of the dominant Power to fight shoulder to shoulder with her soldiers. But now the nimbus of England's invincibility is fading in the eyes of the Indian troops. For they have been included in the rout of the English, and many of them as prisoners share the captivity of their masters in Germany.

In 1898 conjecture was rife as to the subsequent moral effect throughout Africa if Marchand and Kitchener, with their black troops, had clashed at Fashoda, and even now British and German black troops are fighting in that continent. In fine, the Oriental illusion of the supremacy of the white man's brain and hand has clarified. A new *morale* must be substituted and imposed if the fetich of a legendary supremacy is to be maintained throughout the harems and bazaars of the East. Certainly, a political regeneration must possess the colonial offices of the Powers after the war: they will surely profit by their egregious errors in the Balkans, where they grossly misinterpreted the ideals of a pseudo-Orientalism.

I.

In India a vast, rich human laboratory awaits the study of the Western imperialist. A summary of the political and social *impasse* that existed prior to the war will accentuate the miracle that remains to be wrought. "Divide and rule" as a policy was never more adaptable than in India, where the racial and political alignment embraces the two great divisions of Hindu and Mohammedan: the one firmly intrenched, and knitting together in an elastic creed diverse races, all of whose gods sit in the Hindu pantheon; the other representing a cohesive, political unity, insular and even fanatical. In and out of history these two great races have failed to find a permanent rapprochement. To the credit of the Moslem, however, it must be recorded that this was nearly attained at the apogee of his power in India, under the Emperor Akbar. Since then, and especially under the firm régime of the British, misunderstanding has flourished because of temperamental differences and the lack of a unified vision. Not even the hope of partial, even eventual autonomy has successfully fused the ambitions of the two races. The crux of the question lies in this persistent dualism, which has been further complicated by the detachment of the British in the matter of social contact with either of the subject races. With the emergence of the new spirit created by the war, the British must seize the one opportunity afforded their bureaucracy, and endeavor to mould into a flexible yet unified whole these two opposed races of the Indian Empire.

Unlike Hinduism, there is nothing subtle about El Islam: apart from fanaticism, which exists sporadically among its remote and primitive adherents, Islamism is essentially pragmatic, and directly touches the Western mind. Quite different from the mystical fabric of Hinduism, the militant creed is peculiarly amenable to political ideas, insuring to them a clannish unity of thought and sentiment. This quality has proved at once the strength and weakness of the abortive German attempt to precipitate a *jihad* throughout the Moslem world. Absence of caste among Moslems, as Lord Cromer has noted, accounts for the direct social and political contact between ruler and ruled in Egypt, which has rendered the Egyptian Nationalist movement so cohesive. There are those who discern a sentimental relation between the British and Mohammedan in India—a relation often construed to mean a tacit exploitation of race feelings. Tactless blunders, like the partition of Hindu Bengal and the adoption of Moslem Delhi as the seat of government, certainly lend themselves to this interpretation. But the isolation of Indian Islam from the Indian Nationalist movement has hitherto remained more or less complete; the Mohammedan, representing only one-fifth of India's population, defies absorption, and has persistently cherished his original rôle of an invader in India. His powerful organization, the Moslem League, synthetizes his separate aims and desires with the British. Part of his surly detachment is, perhaps, due to a chagrin at the disinclination of his youth to avail itself of the educational facilities offered by British rule, to which the Hindu's more subtle and acquisitive mind eagerly turns. Though unfettered by the Hindu limitations of caste regarding foreign travel, the Indian Moslem sends few of his youth to England for specialized education, and remains bound by the mediæval traditions of his universities, like the great El Azhar in Cairo. And since this educational advantage has been the *sine quâ non* for aspirants to high governmental posts in India, chagrin at Hindu success and contempt for the Nationalist agitation as conceived and maintained by the Hindu *literati* are easy to understand.

Far more complex is the psychology of the Hindu. Able pens have essayed the task, but none is more accurate than that of his own enlightened countrymen. Of these he is fortunate in possessing men of whom any race would be proud, and we must turn to the few but brilliant manifestations of his genius rather than to the misconceptions of his religion, with all its insuperable limitations. While these men are essentially reformers, impatient of the intransigence of a reactionary and ignorant priesthood, eager to cleave the masses immersed under its superstitious oligarchy, yet we must remember that many of their type are recruited from the Brahman class, who have forsaken the privileges accruing from such a highly organized social and religious fabric. For this reason, not only in the distinguished Indian National Congress, and in the reform societies, the Arya- and the Brahmo-Samaj, but eventually upon the inarticulate masses of their co-religionists, their influence must be enormous. Their idealism impresses Western friends just as it leavens their own small but growing body of dreamers. The difficulty hitherto has been to prove to the unclerical, less imaginative Moslem neighbor that, under British rule, an identity of interest is desirable; and to dissipate the suspicion engendered in the British by the extreme dissension in their own emancipated ranks, where impatience and jealousy frequently blur the idealistic concept. The demands of both Moslem and Hindu for a larger share in legislation touching native and internal affairs, for a greater recognition of all phases of native genius, and a more cordial social relation with their rulers, remain only to be expressed coherently. In many of these claims the Hindus have enlisted Moslem sympathy, especially in the Punjab, where the militant Sikhs, a quasi-Hindu stock, compel the respect of the Moslem invader. But the hope of governmental reforms, the adoption of universal primary education for both races, the emancipation of women, must come, as they realize, largely through an awakening of a race consciousness such as India has shown in the war, unhampered by any reactionary social and religious fabric.

II.

Briefly, these were the disabilities of the situation prior to the war. Since then Hindu and Moslem India, with unparalleled enthusiasm, has sent 70,000 picked troops to France, and India is pledged, outside the large individual gifts of her princes, to the burden of partial maintenance. Only once before a similar chance for loyal and racial stratification existed, when, during the Boer War, India unanimously clamored for a share with the colonies in sending troops. That Mr. Chamberlain rejected the offer was more than once a matter of deep concern to Indian administrators, when the bazaars hummed with the rumors of British reverses. Of her share in the present conflict India is justly proud; it has brought her long-awaited signs of appreciation. Not the least is the granting, for the first time since its foundation in 1850, of the Victoria Cross to a native Indian soldier. But still another disability remains, and since Indian troops have proved their worth on European battlefields, has assumed controversial proportions. The admission of Indians to commissions in their own army should immediately receive attention at the India Office. This has long been a grievance, especially among those classes of Mohammedans and Hindus to whom a military career has always been a traditional profession. Commanders-in-chief, and a viceroy, the late Lord Minto, have frequently urged the Indian Government to admit Indians to commissions in their army; it is a step that would supplement, in a powerful measure, the increased confidence to be reposed by the Government in matters of administration, whereby, under Viscount Morley's scheme, Indians are promised a more personal share. But more subtle influences may prove rewarding. If the war does nothing more than to consolidate Hindu and Moslem sentiments of loyalty, through their common share in repelling a great European foe of that empire in which Disraeli's Oriental imagination conceived India as the

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crowning jewel, then her subject peoples will face the dawn of a new era. Speaking in the House of Commons last November, an Under-Secretary for India remarked that "it was clear that India claimed to be not a mere dependent of, but a partner in, the Empire; and her partnership with us in spirit, and in the battlefields, could not but alter the angle from which we should all henceforth look at the problems of the Government of India."

III.

Certainly in this war India has achieved a strategic triumph in voluntarily aligning herself socially and politically with the other colonies of the Empire. After the war the work of social, political, and economic reconstruction in the West will bring a corresponding reaction in the East, and with this reaction the British cannot fail to evaluate this fine spirit of national consciousness which they have sensibly evoked, and whose expression is quite as fervid as that of the blood-colonies of the Empire. If, however, the hopes of a new and lasting Anglo-Indian *entente* are blasted, the Indian mind, while prone to abstractions in the past, will apply a relentless logic to the situation. To have fought bravely beside those colonies that have hitherto excluded and insulted them, to have troops denied the same *camaraderie* which was accorded the Japanese contingent on the Peking Relief Expedition, will be matter for bitter analysis by Indians. While India has not forgotten, but is now avenging, the gratuitous insults showered upon her princes and officers by Field-Marshal Waldersee and his Prussian staff during the march to Peking, yet she realizes that this war will determine whatever prestige she shall attain in Western eyes.

The war now refurbishes Kipling's famous *cliché* in its full application. The new *morale* of British supremacy in India and elsewhere must shed its materialism, and contain something spiritual and humane. How can fifty-odd years of British strength impress India? Like modern Belgium, she has seen the Hunnish legions thunder past (the White Huns or Ephthalites, whose cruelty remains an Indian tradition), her Gangetic plain, quite as historic as the Troad, has settled the destiny of many a conqueror, while the foundations of her successive Delhis are soaked in alien blood. Indeed, the historians of the present war will face the enviable task of recording all those cumulative influences that revealed the West to the East stripped of the adventitious glamour of materialistic power and force. The East was already tired of war when Cæsar was fighting at the Aisne; perhaps her philosophic absorption was merely awaiting the day when the West should discover the need of pacifism. For her many conquerors, so many times in her history, India has been the fabulous phœnix of the East: Max Müller once conceived her as lying between an immense past and an immense future. Will the British see India in all the glory of a re-birth from the flames where ruler and ruled for the first time found confidence and mutual respect?

Luca Della Robbia

By FRANK JEWETT MATHER, Jr.

Since for four years I have watched my friend Allan Marquand's notes growing into this definitive catalogue of Luca's works,* I am in no position to play the censorious critic. Fortunately, that is not necessary. A work that has been in hand for more than twenty years, under most scrupulous revision at all stages, will supply discouraging hunting-ground for the amateur of *corrigenda*. I shall try merely to point out the especial features that distinguish this work, and shall add something on the purely æsthetic side of Luca's accomplishment. Here I wish the spokesman were rather Professor Marquand, but such general considerations, however alluring in themselves, were properly excluded by the necessarily strict limitations of a *catalogue raisonné*.

The arrangement is chronological, beginning with the marble choir gallery of 1431 and ending with certain secondary pieces which show the octogenarian master in an exhaustion by no means without grace. There are sixty-two numbers, ensembles, like doors, chapels, and tombs, being reckoned as one. Thirteen years ago, Maud Crutwell's book, on the whole the most complete study of the Robbias prior to Professor Marquand's, catalogued on a similar system thirty-eight Lucas. The discrepancy is due in part to differences in attribution, Professor Marquand inclining to the side of liberality, but even more to discoveries of new monuments. A number of these have been published in separate articles by Professor Marquand himself. The list of sixty-two should be reduced by some seven for replicas and close variants, so that the number of compositions catalogued is about fifty-five. It requires 145 cuts to illustrate these, not counting a final chapter on school pieces. Each work is succinctly described, fully illustrated, and provided with its separate complete bibliography and roster of documents. At first reading, I was inclined to regret the small scale of the cuts. Yet they are clear, and their smallness makes it without exception possible to insert them in their own reading matter. The alternative was a big, costly album with badly dispersed plates. As I have repeatedly used the catalogue, it has gradually been borne in upon me that it is simply the most convenient thing of the sort I know. Professor Marquand has had all the documents carefully revised, and has been able to add one or two unpublished items, notably the strangely overlooked contract in the archives of the Florence cathedral which dates the Resurrection from the year 1442.

Generally speaking, all the greater monuments, the choir gallery, the Impruneta tabernacles, the chapels, and the Federighi tomb, have been far more exhaustively studied than they had been by previous investigators, and in almost every case a fuller photographic presentation has been made with new details. The catalogue, though succinct, is extraordinarily complete. I can imagine nothing that could be added to advantage, except a chemical study of Luca's glazes. This catalogue should long remain the central authority, and is not likely to be superseded. It belongs to a leisurely and massive type of research which is too rare in America. When the whole catalogue is completed (three larger volumes on Andrea and Giovanni della Robbia and on the later school pieces are to follow), the whole achievement should compare very favorably with that landmark in American erudition, Francis J. Child's "Traditional Ballads." So much expression of a natural satisfaction in the successful launching of a monumental project by a friend and colleague may be permitted before considering the real *causa causans* of this work, Luca della Robbia himself, stonecutter of Florence.

I.

Luca emerges with that suddenness and completeness which is the characteristic of Renaissance artists, as the creator of a notable marble choir gallery. It was set at the crossing of the Florence Cathedral. The first mention of it is in 1431, and by 1438 it was in place. But Luca was already in his thirties, by years and palpable accomplishment, a master. We have nothing to represent his tentative stages; we do not know who was his master. But it is plain from the ten marble reliefs of the Cantoria that the guiding influence in Luca's development was that of Ghiberti. There is the same glamour of adolescent charm, an identical residuum of the swaying grace of the late Gothic style, a common reference to certain formal elegances of Augustan sculpture. Later, in the glazed terra-cottas of Luca we shall find that the daintily grouped frames of flowers, fruits, nuts, and vegetables, with their foliage, find their parallel in the lovely frames of Ghiberti's second Baptistery doors. Luca remained a discreet and moderate exponent of the somewhat exuberant grace of Ghiberti, but remains also a simpler spirit. That preciosity which is so marked in both Ghiberti and Antonio Rossellino, for whom Luca occasionally worked, never affects his serene and sincere mood. He is proof also against the dominating influence of Donatello's naturalism and dramatic pathos. Luca is ever a singularly sound and unperturbed spirit in a most restless age. One recalls the similarly integral and self-limited career of his later contemporary, Giovanni Bellini.

What little we glimpse of Luca's life helps to account for his sweetness and restraint. He was the youngest son of parents no longer young, farming folk from up the Arno. By 1427 the family had moved to Florence and lived in the Quarter of S. Piero Maggiore. Soon the aged father, Simone, died, and the eldest son, Marco, married. Luca lived in a rapidly growing family of nephews and nieces. In 1446 they moved to better quarters in the Via Guelfa. Soon after the

*Luca della Robbia. By Allan Marquand. Princeton University Press. $7.50 net. No. III of Princeton Monographs in Art and Archæology.

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move Marco died, leaving five children. The eldest son, Andrea, born in 1435, was to become Luca's partner and successor. Just about the time the children in the Via Guelfa household had grown up, Andrea married, in 1465, and there followed with commendable regularity, at brief intervals, a new lot of grandnephews and nieces. One of these, Giovanni, the third child, born in 1469, was to carry on the artistic traditions of the house. In 1482, when young Giovanni was just entering his 'teens, Luca died, and was buried in the Church of S. Piero Maggiore. He had passed his youth as a youngest son, his middle life as an uncle, his old age as a grand-uncle, being for most of his years virtual guardian and supporter of younger members of his family. He never married. Between his thirty-fifth and forty-ninth years he was a faithful member of the Misericordia, both a charitable and a penitential order, with austerities of discipline calculated to suppress the promptings of the flesh. In his guilds, the Apothecaries and Stone Masons, he was frequently elected to office. He remembered his best patron, the cathedral, liberally in his will. In general, one gets the picture of a sturdy, generous, self-controlled, domestic type of old bachelor. There is a certain poetry and pathos in the admiration such celibates bestow upon women, in the love they lavish on other men's children. A certain ardor, purity, and restraint in Luca's work seems to find its basis in the patient, self-effacing manner of life which he voluntarily chose.

II.

The most extensive work of Luca is the Cantoria. It contains ten groups of singing or playing youths and maidens. Two are at the ends of the projecting balcony, four in front of it, four below, on the wall between the richly carved supporting brackets. Luca had as his theme the 150th psalm. It begins and ends with an Alleluia, "Praise ye the Lord," which is represented by the earnest groups of well-grown, singing lads at the balcony ends. The eight front groups may be schematized as follows:

Upper row: 1. "Praise him with the sound of the trumpet." Boys moving processionally to the right, with prancing children and joyous little girls playing under the long *tubae* of the boys; 2. "Praise him with the psaltery." Girls frontally disposed clad in thin, clinging robes, and barefooted, two nude putti at their feet; 3. "And cithara" (authorized version erroneously "harp"). Somewhat older girls, still frontal, with heavier drapery and shod, two putti at their feet; 4. "Praise him with the timbrel and dance." Boys with classic tunics and buskins as in No. 1, beating their little drums while two nude urchins dance vigorously.

Lower row, between the brackets left: 5. The motive of the choral dance is continued by little boys and girls, the latter lightly clothed, the former nearly nude—the blithest and most gracious of the panels; 6. "Praise him with stringed instruments and organs." A seated boy with a portable organ surrounded by his standing fellows—the best composed of the panels; 7. "Praise him upon the loud cymbals." Tambourines are meant by the Vulgate and here represented. A standing, frontal group of nearly nude boys—the most perfunctory of the series; 8. "Praise him upon the high sounding cymbals." A truly Dionysiac invention. The exquisite little bodies vibrate to the sharp rhythm, they fling themselves into the accurate stroke with a kind of ecstasy, the marked movement being inward.

As one sees the choir gallery to-day, reconstructed in the little museum of the cathedral, one must imagine the thing set high in a tempered light and the broad channelled pilasters, a false restoration, replaced by lighter twin pilasters of otherwise similar character.

There is a kind of pedantry in noting the defects of a work that eternally exhales the sweetest fragrance of childhood and adolescence. Yet such criticism may bring us nearer to Luca's real greatness. The beauty is in the parts rather than in the whole. It is an extraordinary galaxy of entrancing faces and figures, but it is not quite good relief sculpture. The planes are treated at random. Generally, the relief is high, but it is varied by many unsystematic grades of low relief which confuse the effect. This is especially true in the two central panels of girls. The marble is cut to pieces without providing broad masses of significant shadow, the effect is crowded and confused. In the entire structure there is a lack of decorative forethought. It was bad enough modestly to hide the more delicious nudities and semi-nudities in the gloom between the brackets, but it was unpardonable to carve the brackets themselves so ornately that the best of the figure sculpture really cannot be seen at all in its place. A comparison of the Cantoria with the companion-pieces which Donatello made a few years later gives all the advantages in clarity and decorative simplicity to Donatello, though his design has far less subtlety and variety.

A consideration of Luca's other greater compositions will leave one entirely agreeing with Professor Marquand's judgment: "Even as a composer, we shall have occasion to marvel at his indifference. He seldom thinks of the interrelation of one relief from another, his mind being content to do each separate task to the best of his ability." Certainly, the five marble reliefs of the liberal arts which he carved between 1437 and 1439 for the basement of the Campanile compare very ill with the Glottesque series which they completed. The polychrome glazed reliefs done in 1445 and 1450 for the lunettes over the sacristy doors of the Duomo are among the weakest and most conventional expressions of Quattrocento sculpture. The vault of the Chapel of the Sacrament in S. Miniato apparently owes its merit as design to Michelozzo. The two tabernacles at Impruneta again represent two minds, and the decoration is heavy and florid. The spotting and proportions of the twelve rounds of apostles in the Pazzi Chapel is the most unstudied and ineffective. The Portogallo Chapel and the chapel in S. Giobbe, Venice, have their vaults badly overweighted by the big rounds of the virtues. As for the barrel ceiling of the months in the Medici Palace, the parts now at South Kensington, the decorative arrangement of the medallions, as plausibly reconstructed by Dr. Lethaby, is neither more nor less interesting than twelve silver dollars set in four rows. The bronze doors of the cathedral sacristy are extremely monotonous, with their recurring motive of an enthroned divine flanked by angels. To be sure, many of the projecting heads in the border are charming, but the whole decorative arrangement is flat, confused, and ineffective. What could be done with subject matter quite as refractory may be seen in Donatello's admirable bronze doors for the sacristy at San Lorenzo. Even the tomb of Cardinal Federighi, at the Trinità, is something less than a fine composition. The quite marvellous flat border in polychrome enamel is a distracting element. The hovering angels in front of the sarcophagus and the dead Christ with Mary and John, behind the effigy, are at once so large in scale and high in relief as unfortunately to compete with the effigy. Their subsidiary character is not clearly established, and one enjoys the most exquisitely wrought of early Renaissance tombs, not as a whole, but as a collocation of separate beauties. Yet on study the portrait of the dead Cardinal is of most appealing pathos, and the angels supporting a wreath are superior in natural grace to their famous prototypes on Ghiberti's reliquaries of the Three Martyrs and of Saint Zenobius. But, plainly, Luca's finest work must be sought elsewhere than in his greater compositions.

III.

As a matter of fact, an enthusiast for Luca might well rest his case on the Visitation at Pistoia and on half-a-dozen of the best Madonnas. In such works of modest and restricted sentiment and scope, Luca displays an incomparable sweetness, dignity, and simplicity. No sculptor of the Renaissance has shown a juster conception of the theme of the Madonna and Child. Genuinely humanistic and without hieratic aloofness, there is something ineffably maternal and divine in Luca's Madonnas, whether in those sensitive girlish apparitions of his earlier time, or in those stately types which forecast the serene manner of Giovanni Bellini. To express the maximum of solicitude without exaggeration or preciosity—this was the gift of Luca. As compared with his, the Madonnas of his really abler sculptor contemporaries, from Donatello to Duccio, invariably have a tinge either of overstrain or of graceful affectation. Even Verrocchio, who in repose and reserve comes nearest to Luca, makes his Madonna just a little too prosperous, ladylike, and unconcerned.

But before developing this engaging theme, the question seems in order, How much does Luca owe his fame to his invention of polychrome glazing? Very much, in the sense that the name Robbia immediately evokes memories of white, azure, green, yellow, and purple glazes; rather little, in the sense that we should still have to reckon seriously with Luca even if he had never

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mixed a glaze or built a kiln. Yet the charm of the choice whites and azures, often enhanced by deeper greens, yellows, and purples in borders of flowers and leaves, is undeniable. Luca is almost invariably called a stonecutter, *scarpellatore*, and his invention of glazing seems to have been primarily a labor-saving device. By skilful glazing, the first model in clay was converted into a very tolerable substitute for marble, and the long and costly process of cutting the model in stone was avoided. Since the marble sculpture of the period was painted in colors, it was natural that Luca should try for color in his experiments. The first dated monument in which the polychrome glaze appears is the tabernacle at Peretola, begun in 1441. The figure sculpture is still in marble, the glazed terracotta being employed as background and as mosaic in the decorative details. At first sight this monument of mixed materials should be the meeting-point of the two styles, but from the perfection of the glaze Professor Marquand reasonably supposes that many experiments must have been made before 1441. Moreover, several glazed pieces, notably the Visitation, the Adoration, and the Madonna at Wellington, England, the lunette from S. Pierino, and the Altman Madonna, seem stylistically to belong before 1440. Two pieces, a round mirror frame in the Figdor collection, Vienna, and the Visitation, show a thick, bubbly white, and thus may be dated early in the thirties as among the experimental and less successful products of the kiln.

Luca is likely to have based his discovery on the current practice of the Florentine potters. They worked both with a dull clay slip and with a tin-oxide glaze. Their whites were far inferior to Luca's, but they commanded a fine green, and a pale greenish blue which was not so far from Luca's cerulean azure. What he seems to have done was merely to enrich and refine the customary potters' glazes by adding to the tin-oxide base, lead, in the form of litharge, and antimony. Such is Vasari's account of the recipe, and he lived in a time when Robbia ware was still made. It is plain that much must have depended on very careful firing. The pieces were much larger than those with which an artist potter usually dealt. It is here possibly, rather than in compounding the glaze, that the modern copies are defective. From the first, Luca commanded a full polychromy. The details of the Peretola tabernacle of 1441 show the entire gamut; the Resurrection, begun in 1442 for the cathedral, shows an almost pictorial polychromy. Occasionally, as in the arms of the Physicians' Guild on Orsanmichele, and naturally in other heraldic pieces, Luca employs his entire palette. But usually he reserves the more brilliant colors for floral borders, and leaves his figures white on a simple azure ground. Nowhere do his tact and self-restraint show more strikingly than in his moderate application of his own invention. And, as compared with the variegated polychromy of Mazzoni and Begarelli in the north and of his own grand-nephew Giovanni at Florence, Luca's unpretentious designs retain a marked dignity and monumentality. He was one of the few early Renaissance artists who were capable of the rare virtue of renunciation.

IV.

In the simpler groups Luca's dignity and charm are undeniable. Nothing could be at once more unaffectedly gracious and more accomplished than the Visitation in S. Giovanni fuorcivitas, Pistoia. The girlish reserve of the Virgin, emphasized by the hesitating touch of her lovely fingers on St. Elizabeth's shoulder, is beyond all praise. The same arm that is so tentative in gesture begins a splendid curve that is carried out in the Virgin's drooped head and in the whole torso and drapery of St. Elizabeth. It is the unifying element in the group. St. Elizabeth is ardent to ecstasy, yet noble and tender, a magnificent foil to the relatively unmoved Virgin. Her movement from the kneeling posture is positive and eager. The severe flatness of the composition is skilfully relieved by the outward swing of the Virgin's leg and by the inward tilted head of St. Elizabeth. These are refinements that Luca might well have learned from Ghiberti, who would probably have pushed them to mannerism. The group has that consummate tact in modulation and arrangement that one associates with the best productions of the High Renaissance. It is not strange that certain critics, misled by these premonitory perfections in Luca, have ascribed it to the early years of the sixteenth century. That would mean that it was by some late member of the Robbia school. Professor Marquand is convincing in dating this masterpiece in the thirties. Its evident relations with the types of the Cantoria, and its thick and imperfectly fired glaze, combine to mark it as one of Luca's early productions.

It was possible to surpass it only in minor details of modelling. We see the process in a series of Madonnas of this early period. The lunette from S. Pierino, despite its captivating girlish wistfulness, is a little overfussed in the draperies, while the child is too sprawling and animated. The hovering angels are shown at full-length, giving the Madonna an air of looking over a parapet. Luca has not yet worked out the logical filling of the space. The very similar Madonna which has found its way to Nynehead church, Wellington, England, is positively shrinking and gawky, in a charming way, however, and the Bambino is caught in an unsteady, transitional pose. Perhaps the most admirable of the Madonnas of this girlish type is that of the Altman collection. It is less immediately appealing, but more compact and balanced. Mother and Child display a lovely demureness. It is the transition to the more stately and matronly Madonnas of the next decade, 1440 to 1450.

None has a more confident accent than the lunette once in the Via dell' Agnolo. It is easy to see why Professor Marquand makes it his favorite among Luca's works. It has gravity and sweetness, and is most accomplished as an arrangement. Its lily border is of the finest, and the floral motive is happily repeated in the relief itself in the two vases of lilies which the angels hold. A certain pride in the mother and the sturdy pose of the clothed and standing Child are admirable. We shall have to wait nearly forty years for Giovanni Bellini to repeat this mood and independently to create these forms in the art of painting. As a Junonian presentment of the Mother of God the Via dell' Agnolo Madonna is incomparable in its century, but it is not one of Luca's more intimate inventions, and I can imagine many preferring the more unconscious graces of the Altman Madonna or the Frescobaldi Madonna at Berlin. The latter, for its ease, is almost Leonardesque. Still, as an ensemble, the Via dell' Agnolo lunette is of extraordinary richness, and it may well be regarded as Luca's most notable single work. It was freely imitated by Masolino in the fresco lunette which he painted for the Church of S. Stefano at Empoli. The fact confirms Professor Marquand's early dating of the piece.

Once the matronly type was established, we may speak rather of variation than of progress in Luca's Madonnas. They tend to assume more positive attitudes with a more decided swing. The Bambino often assumes a more affectionate and emotional pose, clutching at His mother's neck. Occasionally, as in the Madonna of the Apple at Berlin, these more pronounced poses are combined with a Ghibertian complication of drapery. But this endeavor at novelty is isolated. Now and then, as in the Frescobaldi Madonna and the Stemma of the Physicians' Guild on the wall of Orsanmichele, Luca returns refreshingly to the girlish types of his early years. But, in the main, after 1450, he seems to have devoted himself to large decorative commissions, in which his personal part may have been small. His *bottega* assumes that quality of a commercial collective enterprise which it was to increase through two generations of successors. He is still capable of varying delightfully the inexhaustible theme of the Divine Mother, but his last thirty years reveal more eloquently the artisan in him than the artist. He lived on to a ripe old age, dying in 1482. For years before that, his nephew, Andrea, must have been the leading spirit in the *bottega*, but the business stuck shrewdly to the approved forms for some time after the old man's death. We may imagine old Luca's distrust of the strenuous innovations of Antonio Pollaiuolo and of the somewhat superficial lapidary graces of Andrea Verrocchio. That Luca, the lover of children, knew a moody little boy named Michelangelo Buonarotti is likely enough, but not certain. He will pretty surely have admired the sensitive grace in modelling of one of Verrocchio's studio helpers, young Leonardo da Vinci.

V.

When we recall the bacchic panels hidden between the consoles of the Cantoria, it is

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clear that there were capacities in Luca which he never fully realized. He might conceivably have allied himself with the pagan current of the Renaissance. He had the power and exuberance. It is a little strange to see him dwindling to the work of minor decorator, and, as sculptor even, becoming chiefly a modeller of Madonnas—what the Italians somewhat scornfully call a *Madonnaio*. Yet in such limitation of his interest he may, after all, have found the truest self-expression. It pleased his reverent fancy to cull the flowers and fruits that grow in the *Hortus conclusus*, which is the symbol of our Lady of Heaven—it fully engrossed his fancy to weave these flowers and fruits into particolored garlands, to copy them exquisitely in the clay, and endue them with brilliant enamels for the firing. These garlands enrich while enhancing the simplicity of those white Virgins on azure panel, medallion, or lunette. And his deeper imagination seems to have been likewise fully engaged in merely recreating the simpler moods of the Maiden Mother of Nazareth. To Donatello he willingly left the tragedy of her exalted estate. Luca is content to express her maidenly shyness, her maternal, protective warmth and pride. Thus in doing homage to the Virgin Mary he invents so many universal expressions for pure and happy motherhood. The elemental quality of his message, and its depth, imply a certain monotony, but the commonplace is that of strength, not of weakness—of direct and just perception. So that if Luca seems nearest the Gospels and the legendary hymns of the church, his white Madonnas will none the less hold their own beside such pathetic masterpieces of Hellas as the Cnidian Demeter. And among the thousands of artists who have chiefly celebrated the Mother of God, Luca has a peculiar claim to be remembered. It is a refinement of his homage that he invents for the presentation of Our Lady a new and beautiful material requiring the purifying flame to fix and perfect it. All of the Madonnas of Luca have been literally washed in a white-hot incandescence. He may have been symbolist enough to feel that what came white and clean from his kilns was worthy of the Madonna in a sense in which the much-handled clay and marble of other sculptors was not.

We who love Luca need not too much grieve about his being mostly a *Madonnaio*. The garden plot of the Blessed Virgin has been domain enough for many a great artist. It was for a kindred spirit already mentioned, Giovanni Bellini. Many readers will recall the fruitless efforts which that masterful great lady Isabella d' Este once made to force old Bellini to do for her some poesy or mythology. The old painter temporized. Isabella's advisers pressed the suit. After some years of misunderstandings, and of no progress whatever, a sensible correspondent reminded the urgent Marchioness of Mantua that poesies and mythologies were not in Bellini's line, he "being good to make the Madonna." It is the right word also for Luca della Robbia.

Book Notes and Byways

A GREAT COLLECTION OF AMERICANA.

By JOHN THOMAS LEE.

Mr. George Parker Winship has written from full knowledge, and the Merrymount Press has worthily printed, a slender volume entitled "The John Carter Brown Library: A History." It should be understood without delay that this is not a dry-as-dust report to a board of trustees, but a book which will appeal to many outside the fraternity of librarians and those primarily interested in the science of the library. It will also be read with satisfaction by the ever-growing company of bibliophiles; and when opportunity presents, will be placed upon their shelves. For it tells in a few chapters the fascinating story of a great library, if quality and completeness within a chosen field is the true measure of greatness rather than numerical strength and a wide range of subjects less perfectly represented. As is well known, the John Carter Brown Library of Providence, R. I., is devoted for the most part to books and materials relating to America printed prior to 1801. In this field it is unrivalled. The story of the inception and growth of this magnificent collection, with an account of the part played by those who either brought these treasures together or made their gathering possible, could not fail in point of interest. And Mr. Winship has done his work well.

John Carter Brown was born in 1797, and graduated from Brown University in the class of 1816. He appears to have inherited a fondness for book-collecting which soon developed into acute bibliomania. When an undergraduate he purchased books of travel and history. This led to the collection of earlier works, particularly original accounts of the settlement of New England, such as Nathaniel Ward's "Simple Cobler of Aggawamm in America." In these early days of his collecting, Mr. Brown noted on fly-leaves references to his native State, showing the special appeal of local history. He early acquired a copy of White Kennet's "Bibliothecæ Americanæ Primordia" (1713), which for a hundred years was almost the only comprehensive guide to original narratives of the discovery and exploration of the New World. Obadiah Rich issued in 1832 a catalogue containing a list of books about America printed between 1492 and 1700. This list became the basis of Mr. Brown's collection. At a later time, he turned his attention also to eighteenth-century Americana. The issuance of Ternaux's "Catalogue" (1837) acted as a spur to collectors like Mr. Brown and Mr. James Lenox, for the books therein described were nearly, if not quite all, in the compiler's possession. The quiet French scholar had distanced them. Naturally, Mr. Brown procured a copy of Ternaux's "Catalogue," which, when interleaved, served as a working guide for many years.

As Mr. Winship remarks, a fresh impetus to the collecting of Americana was furnished by the appearance upon the scene of John Russell Bartlett and the somewhat eccentric Henry Stevens, of Vermont, the first of whom became Mr. Brown's trusted friend and adviser, while Stevens for a long period scoured Europe to obtain rare books for his Providence client. Stevens's invoices of items sent to Mr. Brown in 1846 and 1847, still preserved in the library's archives, tend to make the collector of to-day wish that he had lived in the first half of the last century. Pierre d'Ailly's "Ymago Mundi," printed about 1485, begins the first invoice, and is followed by three editions of the "Columbus Letter" (1493), the three for thirty-eight pounds. A Vespucius "Mundus Novus" is priced at four pounds ten shillings; Hakluyt's "Virginia Richly Valued" (1609) was purchased for two guineas, and Champlain's "Voyages" (1613) for two pounds!

Days of triumph as well as anxiety in the pursuit of his hobby came to John Carter Brown, as when he stole a march on his rivals by the purchase of many of Ternaux's rarities. His friend of many years, Mr. James Lenox, must have felt a pang when he learned of Mr. Brown's *coup*. There was ever friendly rivalry between these two collectors, and Henry Stevens, who unearthed "nuggets," as he loved to call rare historical books, for both of them, did not always find it easy to give satisfaction. These trials are set forth in Stevens's charming little volume of "Recollections of Mr. James Lenox" (1886). Stevens, however, possessed a nimble wit, and, moreover, was tactful and resourceful.

Mr. Brown's collection grew rapidly, and luckily his marriage in 1859, at the age of sixty-two, did not put a stop to his bookish activities. For Mrs. Brown was from the first entirely sympathetic and helpful; but, being a sensible woman, she did not care to give up her home to her husband's books—and this resulted in the building of a library-room. Twice at least was John Carter Brown tempted to dispose of his Bibliotheca Americana. An enterprising bookseller once offered him $50,000 for the collection. Fortunately for future generations, he withstood temptation and the tragedy of dispersion was averted. Although Mr. Brown generously lent his books to distant scholars, he shared the bibliophile's apprehension for the safety of his treasures; and often he complained that it took a long time to read a short book.

Upon Mr. Brown's death in 1874 the ownership of his books passed to his wife, who faithfully carried out his wishes. The eldest son, John Nicholas Brown, became especially interested in his father's library, and in the course of time the books became his. He acquired expert knowledge in matters of bibliography, and added many important items to the collection. Mr. Winship says: "All told, the number of volumes purchased by John Nicholas Brown makes very little impression on the Library statistics. By any other standard they added at least a half to its value."

Among the "red-letter days" in the annals of the library, Mr. Winship recalls the purchase in 1873 of the "Dutch Vespucius," which Mr. Brown ordered by telegraphic cable, beating Mr. Lenox by two hours. In 1893, the "King Philip the Second" atlas was obtained at the Spitzer sale, also a volume of manuscript maps (1511), signed by Vesconte de Maggiolo, from the Heredia library.

This almost priceless collection of Americana, with a suitable endowment and a sum sufficient to erect a separate building, came into the possession of Brown University in 1901 by the terms of John Nicholas Brown's will. During its first decade as a part of the University 11,571 titles at a cost of more than one hundred thousand dollars were added.

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No other library is more helpful to serious students the world over. Many contributions of permanent value to history and bibliography have been made possible by its liberal policy towards those who, for one reason or another, were unable to make first-hand use of its collections. Requests for information, not infrequently involving much research and consequent labor, are answered with a thoroughness and courtesy which leave nothing to be desired. In this respect the John Carter Brown Library, under the guiding hand of Mr. George Parker Winship, the librarian, has for years maintained a higher standard, perhaps, than that of any other similar institution on this continent. The founders, father and son, could they know, would feel that they had builded well, and that their benefaction was indeed being administered in the manner they had planned.*

Notes from the Capital

A PROPHET OF INEVITABLE DESTINY.

Now that we are threatened with a revival of the Mexican question, we shall probably hear with more or less frequency from an old Washingtonian who has figured prominently in the past as a prophet of the cult of Inevitable Destiny in matters affecting our continent. It is hard to believe, from his appearance, that William E. Chandler is turning eighty; yet so full is Washington of Chandler legends that it is equally hard to forget that he was Judge Advocate-General of the Navy Department under Lincoln, and was in the very prime of life nearly forty years ago, when, practically single-handed, he defeated Samuel J. Tilden for the Presidency. Never of powerful physique, but nervous and wiry, he has excited universal wonder by the amount he has contrived to accomplish in his public career of a half-century. Perhaps his first serious lesson in life may have had more than a little to do with this. He had come home for a holiday from an academy he was attending in a neighboring town. His mother, a typical New England country-woman of her era, met him at the door, looked him over critically, after their brief greeting, and inquired why he was not carrying his umbrella. He confessed that he had left it at school through forgetfulness. "William," said she, sternly, "you need not take off your hat. Go right back and fetch that umbrella."

"But, mother," he pleaded, "it's six miles, and the teams are all moving this way now, so I can't get a lift."

"Then walk!" was all the comfort she gave him. So he trudged back, recovered his umbrella, and earned far more than its value in the lesson of individual responsibility which the incident impressed upon his juvenile mind. From that day to this he has not felt the need of leaning on other men, except to command them. When he was Judge Advocate-General he conducted the affairs of his office without reference to how his administration might please or displease his critics as long as it satisfied him. As Secretary of the Navy in President Arthur's Cabinet, he caused widespread commotion in the service by refusing to let the gray-headed experts steer him contrary to his own judgment. In his canvasses for the Senate he had the New Hampshire railway interests arrayed against him, besides many astute politicians with whom, in the past, he had been one day hand-in-glove and the next at swords' points. His habit of going where he pleased, and doing what he chose, though always within the Republican party, caused a factional opponent to denounce him once publicly as a "political tramp," and the title stuck to him for some time, but he treated the attack with indifference and went ahead as usual. In the Senate, nobody ever knew certainly in advance where he was likely to turn up, a circumstance which gave his words and acts a sort of oracular charm.

In spite of the bitterness of expression into which he was occasionally drawn in a controversy, nobody in public life was fonder of a joke than Chandler; and the hoaxes he would play, now and then, on some old friend would keep him merry for months. On the other hand, he was just as likely to espouse an apparently friendless cause from pure sentiment, though he knew that it would surely arouse fresh animosities towards him. In speaking, he had a way of biting his words that added to the effectiveness of what he had to say, especially when he was in a mildly satirical mood. He was essentially a guerrilla fighter in debate, rarely making a long speech or one bearing evidence of preparation. When a question arose in the Senate on which he held very definite opinions, he would sit silent for some time in his place, listening to the other speakers with his head stretched forward and his polished eye-glasses gleaming; then suddenly he would dart, spider-like, into the aisle, rest the tips of his fingers on the desks on either side of him, and sway his body alternatively forward and back while he shot brief but trenchant interrogatories and crisp comments at the orator who had the floor. His momentary purpose accomplished, he would retire from the fray as suddenly as he had entered it, with a whimsical smile at having withered an adversary, exploded a humbug, or made somebody foolishly angry. There were a few men on the Democratic side whom he particularly delighted to stir up, yet with whom he was on the pleasantest personal terms outside of the arena. One of these was Senator Tillman, of South Carolina; another was the giant Populist from Nebraska, William V. Allen.

Chandler's historic feat, to which allusion was made in an earlier paragraph, was the saving of his party from wreck in the Presidential campaign of 1876. Conditions were ripe, and so recognized, for a Democratic victory; and on election night, after receiving the most discouraging reports from the polls all along the battlefront, the other managers at Republican headquarters in New York had given up all hope and gone to bed, or were trying to drown their sorrows. Chandler, who was Secretary of the National Committee, refused to surrender or to cease work. By the early hours of the morning he had matured his plans for checking the Democratic sweep; and, invading the composing-room of one great Republican newspaper, he induced the make-up editor to revise some of the forms which were all ready for the press, modifying the confessions of disaster so that he was able to send out to the world's breakfast-tables a claim of the probability of victory. This he followed with a vigorous telegraphic correspondence with his party representatives in the disputed States of the South. His later activities were in the same line, including the construction of the machinery of a Congressional investigation which brought out the famous cipher dispatches, and led to the elimination of Mr. Tilden as a future "possibility."

VIEILLARD.

*Since this article was written Mr. Winship, after twenty years of splendid service, has resigned his position as librarian of the John Carter Brown Library to become librarian of the Widener Collection in the library of Harvard University. Harvard's choice is a wise one, but the loss to Brown is not slight.

Correspondence

NEUTRAL RIGHTS DURING THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The supreme Court of the United States decided in the case of the Amy Warwick that the Civil War began with President Lincoln's proclamation of a blockade of the Confederate States on April 19, 1861. This was one week after the attack on Fort Sumter. Eight days later, April 27, after Virginia and North Carolina had taken the first steps towards union with the Confederate States the blockade was extended to include the additional hostile coast. A navy of forty-two vessels, of which about half were propelled by steam, and the others the old-style sailing-ships, storeships, or tenders, of which none were armored, and of which only eleven were at the time in American waters, undertook to form a barrier to all commerce with a coast line nearly 3,500 miles long, and having some 200 harbors. The undertaking looked to foreign Powers suspiciously like the revival of paper blockades.

Charleston was blockaded for four days, from May 11, and then abandoned for about two weeks; that is, six weeks elapsed before the blockade of Charleston really began, though the proclamation of April 19 had announced an immediate blockade according to "the law of nations in such cases." Great Britain suggested that the withdrawal of vessels from Charleston and later sending others meant a new blockade and required a new notification by the rules of international law, but the State Department held that Charleston had been under a continuous blockade. The United States rapidly bought and built vessels to meet the urgent needs of the blockade, and gradually during the summer of 1861 the patrol of watching ships formed a reasonably effective blockade.

Such was the effect of the blockade at the South that scarcity, high prices, and want began to weigh on many parts of the South before the end of the first year of war. Homespun became by force of circumstances fashionable in Charleston; rye, mixed with coffee, formed the usual morning drink, and the wounded often remained uncared for because of the lack of medicines, lint, and surgical plaster. Nor was the belligerent the only one to suffer from the barrier to normal commerce. The cotton mills of England and France were forced to shut down; the laborers suffered from famine. Of the 80,000 workers in five districts of Lancashire, 66,000 were either on short time or wholly idle. During 1862 a half million persons in Eng-

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land were in receipt of relief, because of the American war. Gladstone estimated the annual loss in wages at $40,000,000. During the fifteen months, when the hard times were the worst, public and private relief agencies distributed in Lancashire more than $12,000,000. In France the burden was almost as heavy. In Rouen alone 50,000 workers were deprived of their means of livelihood. In another district 300,000 persons were absolutely destitute. Such items give only a fragmentary view of the suffering caused in neutral countries by the Civil War. Some individuals, of course, like the shipbuilders and the manufacturers of materials needed in the American war, profited from the abnormal conditions.

The enormous profits from trade with the Confederate States developed blockade running to a high state of efficiency. The risk was too great for neutrals to attempt to run the blockade in the usual sea-going vessels. Instead, two vessels were employed in each voyage. The ordinary neutral vessel carried the cargo to Nassau, Bermuda, or Havana —all neutral ports. This much of the voyage was on the face normal and perfectly legal according to the accepted rules of neutral rights. Such vessels flew the neutral flag, and began the voyage, as well as ended it, at neutral ports. Then another vessel of light draught, high speed, built and painted so as to be invisible at a short distance, and swift enough to have an advantage in case of pursuit, carried the cargoes between the near-by neutral and the Confederate ports. One unusually successful blockade runner made eight trips before capture, paying the owners 700 per cent. on their investment; another made forty-four voyages. It was estimated that two successful trips compensated the owners for the loss of the vessel. The proximity of neutral ports and the use of steam power for the first time on a large scale in warfare made the existing rules of blockade seem inadequate to the United States as a belligerent.

An old eighteenth-century rule, formulated by the British prize courts, prevented American vessels from carrying goods from the French West Indies to France during the Anglo-French wars from 1793 to 1814. When American vessels attempted to conceal the nature of the commerce by carrying the cargo to a port of the United States, and then setting out for Europe, the British prize courts declared the voyage equally illegal and condemned the cargo. They ruled that such a broken voyage was in reality one continuous voyage. It should be emphasized that British courts only condemned cargoes taken after they had left an American port for a French port; that is, after the hostile act was actually and irrevocably begun.

The Government of the United States seized upon the idea of the continuous voyage, and adapted it to the new situation which arose from the problem of swift steam blockade runners. The old rule had applied to carrying contraband, the American Government applied it to blockade running as well. Neutral vessels were searched and captured on the high seas, hundreds of miles from the coast of the United States, bound for a neutral port, and the cargoes condemned by the prize courts of the United States on the ground that the ultimate destination of the cargo was believed to be a blockaded port: not for an illegal act already committed, but for one in contemplation.

One case will illustrate the treatment of neutral commerce. The British bark, the Springbok, was captured by an American gunboat near Nassau when near the end of a voyage from London, February 3, 1863. There was no question of the neutral ownership. The cargo consisted of hops, dry goods, drugs, leather, cotton cards, paper, army blankets, linen, woollen shirts, flannel, army brogans, congress gaiters, and a small quantity of gunpowder, swords, and bayonets. It seemed to the United States prize court that "a considerable portion of the cargo" was bound for the Confederate States, and both ship and cargo were condemned. The Supreme Court, however, on appeal only condemned the cargo and released the ship without allowing costs or damages to the owners. The Court outlined the new American doctrine in the declaration that "the cargo was originally shipped with intent to violate the blockade; that the owners of the cargo intended that it should be transshipped at Nassau into some vessel more likely to succeed in reaching safely a blockaded port than the Springbok; that the voyage from London to the blockaded port was, as to cargo, both in law and in the intent of the parties, one voyage; and that the liability to condemnation, if captured during any part of that voyage, attached to the cargo from the time of sailing."

It is not intended by this statement of Civil War practice to offer a defence or a condemnation, but rather to place the present clash of belligerent interests and neutral interests in a new historical perspective, and to suggest that, since the rules regarding neutral rights on the high seas have been chiefly formulated by belligerent prize courts, there is little hope of any considerable relief for neutrals short of the creation of an international prize court or the abolition of war itself.

ELBERT J. BENTON.

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O., May 2.

FROM THE NORTH SEA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By the courtesy of the recipient I am able to send you the following extracts from a letter written by an officer of H. M. S. King George V, which seemed to me likely to prove of interest to your readers, not only as a picture of life on board one of the great English Dreadnoughts, but especially as illustrating the attitude of English naval men towards the war. The letter is dated February 6, 1915.

H. LANGFORD WARREN.

Cambridge, Mass., May 26.

"I am glad my message for Christmas was so fortunately timed. We spent Christmas Day at sea (with the weather behaving itself luckily), and most of the daylight hours of it at action stations. We thought a raid was possible, when the Germans might have expected our coast watchers to be less on their guard, so, as attack is the best form of defence, we carried the war into the enemy's country that day with the air-raid on Cuxhaven. We have since heard that it occasioned quite a lot of damage to their ships and airship sheds, more than was thought at the time. The big fleet were only watchers—or I should say listeners—from a long distance away, but we fully enjoyed what we knew, from its naval difficulties, to be a very cleverly organized and splendidly carried-out little raid. We feel that we are watching all these happenings when not actually engaged, for we hear on the wireless all that is going on, and so are able—with what interest you can imagine—to follow on a chart all the movements of the ships which are fighting. The silences are very pregnant, too. I remember hearing the Cressy's cry to all ships to come to the Aboukir's aid when she—the Aboukir—was sinking. A few moments later some ship replied asking the Cressy a question about it. The Cressy answered quickly. Then a little later another question was asked the Cressy and no answer came. Then she was called and called, and still there was the silence. We realized then that she would not answer again; but it was only later that we learned that the Aboukir and Hogue and Cressy were all torpedoed together. A sub-lieutenant and a clerk from this office, both of whom had left us only a few weeks before, went on those ships.

"We have on board now a lucky fellow from the Hogue—a lieutenant. He was four hours in the water before he was picked up, but he only remembers going overboard and waking up in Holland next day.

"The battle cruisers' action on 24th January was immensely interesting to us, of course, as the first action of the war between heavy-gun ships; and, if our confidence *could* have been increased, that has done it. The disparity in the damage to each side is extraordinary. The prisoners, survivors from the Blücher, who were close astern of their own battle cruisers, have been able to tell us how great was the damage to those two ships, and how terribly they were on fire; and our own ships—scarcely hurt—we have seen.

"There is no doubt as to the clever ingenuity of the Germans. . . . But their root trouble is a complete inability to judge men. It did not want the many failures of their diplomacy since the outbreak of this war to prove that. Their inability to colonize, in spite of being such enterprising traders, has proved it through many years.

"I think most of us in England are in this more in sorrow than in anger. It seems so sad to think of a great nation, or one which ought to have been great, making such fools of themselves. The war was a misjudgment. Their method of carrying it through so ruthlessly is a misjudgment of the spirit of the age. Their 'campaign of hate' is a misjudgment of the stage which civilization and Christianity have reached among the masses of men.

"We *cannot* lose this because we shall fight to the end.

. . . . . .

"We cannot understand their hate in this. We fight hard, but as gentlemen. Once our opponent is down we are ready to pick up survivors, make them comfortable, congratulate them on having put up a good fight. Every one in the navy fights with this point of view, I think; but they do not seem to understand that. A few of their rescued survivors have behaved execrably, spitting at the officers who have superintended their rescue. It is incomprehensible to us.

. . . . . .

"We have just given a Pantomine on board, a short one. It took us a long time to get it up, as many times the rehearsals were interrupted for days together, of course. But we did it at last, about ten of us, and it was a great success. All the ship have laughed at it and said it was splendid. It has made a change in the monotony and pleased every one. Luckily, there were no "alarms" on the

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night, so it was not interrupted. That was all we feared. . . .

"This is a terribly long letter, and will certainly make the ship's censor—the chaplain—very angry. I am going to ask you one more thing before I end. Will you occasionally send me an American paper, a weekly review or some paper of that kind, where I can read the American view of all this war? It is so interesting to see an outside point of view, and American papers get on board but rarely."

THE LOEB CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of the recently issued volumes of the Loeb Classical Library, which you printed in the *Nation* of March 25, has just reached me. The charges brought against the mechanical make-up and general appearance of the Greek volumes of the series, and more specifically against the two volumes of Plutarch, are so grave that I lost no time in making a careful examination of the books. The paper used in the Plutarch is identical with that used in all the stouter volumes of the series. In order to avoid too great bulkiness in the books that contain more than 500 pages, we were obliged to employ a somewhat thinner, and consequently very slightly less opaque, paper than in the thinner volumes. The paper was selected with much care and deliberation after making thorough tests of its opaqueness and durability. The only fault I myself have to find with it is that the color varies slightly between white and yellowish-white, but the manufacturer at the time assured us that this is quite unavoidable. Recently Mr. Heinemann, who had heard from an American correspondent of the review in the *Nation*, sent me specimens of printing on Bible paper and on India paper. A dispassionate comparison shows that our paper can fully compete with these more expensive papers. Anybody who knows the tremendous cost of the much-overrated India paper will promptly recognize that it would be impossible to use it for books whose cost even now considerably exceeds the net proceeds derived from their sale.

Your reviewer says that "the justification of the pages is so bad, and the general spacing is so unintelligent, that no one of ordinary eyesight can read the Greek, or the English for that matter, any length of time without discomfort and even peril." Less than a week ago I read the *Greek* of Plato's "Euthyphro" and "Apology" in a *railway car!* My eyes are not better than those of the average man, but I did not feel the slightest strain upon them. The Greek font used in the Loeb Classical Library is virtually that of the famous Oxford Press, which is universally and justly admired, and I have still to hear adverse criticism of our English font. If your reviewer or any other competent person can show us how better to space our pages, we should be indebted to him. I think a word of praise for the successful manner in which the difficult task of making the English text correspond with the adjoining page of Greek or Latin has been solved would have been more in place than some of your reviewer's spiteful remarks. Incidentally, I may add that any fair-minded person must agree that the texts of the Loeb Classical Library are distinctly better printed than those of Teubner, which have been used by scholars uncomplainingly for several generations. It is surprising and painful to read that our Greek books are printed in "this detestable fashion," and one is almost led to suspect that the critic who uses these words, notwithstanding that in other parts of his review he professes friendship and deep interest in the series, has some personal grudge which he is narrow enough to vent in your columns.

I must emphatically and stoutly protest against the imputation that I have no desire that "the project be decently executed." For, though the writer puts it into the form of a question, he evidently intends it as a statement of his conviction. Without undue conceit, I may hope that those who are acquainted with the spirit that has always actuated me in furthering the interests of science and letters, will resent, as I do, this wholly unfounded charge. Nor can I allow the imputation that Dr. T. E. Page, the learned and painstaking editor-in-chief, is "quite incompetent," to go unchallenged. If your reviewer has *really* examined the works thus far published—and the forty-seven volumes issued since the autumn of 1912 have certainly given opportunity to form a correct judgment—he must know better than the public who may be misled by his calumnies can possibly know that the highest degree of critical and scholarly judgment is constantly displayed by Dr. Page and his learned associates, Dr. W. H. D. Rouse and Prof. Edward Capps.

I can answer the question whether "the advisory editors, including the eminent American scholars concerned in the undertaking, are indifferent," by saying that all these gentlemen have, from the beginning, shown the liveliest and most generous interest in its progress. Were the Greek books really as bad as your reviewer represents them to be, some member of the Advisory Board—I am in correspondence with all of them—would certainly have called my attention to their serious shortcomings.

And, lastly, I resent most strongly the statement that Mr. William Heinemann, the publisher of the series, "ought to be issuing penny dreadfuls instead of managing a great enterprise of literature and scholarship." An examination of the list of Mr. Heinemann's publications and a look at the splendid make-up and printing of the books that bear the imprint of his firm will suffice to show that only malice and ill-nature can have provoked the writer to make so absurd and improper a statement. If your critic had had business relations with Mr. Heinemann, he certainly would have learned that no publisher takes higher or more ethical ground in his dealings with authors.

I know, Mr. Editor, that your sense of fair play will lead you to print this letter in an early issue of your valued paper.

James Loeb.

Munich, April 23.

[The reviewer's letter in reply to Dr. Page and Mr. Heinemann has already touched on some of the points raised by Mr. Loeb, but respect for the founder of the Library demands that his complaint should not pass unheeded.

In the first place, the reviewer, who has not attempted to conceal his name from those interested, has no possible reason for bearing a grudge against the Loeb Library or any of its managers. On the contrary, he has from its inception hailed it as a magnanimous project which might be of almost incalculable service. But he soon felt that the paper and printing of some of the issues would be a serious interference with the usefulness of the Library, and he made this criticism repeatedly in moderate language. The ill-conditioned volumes continued to appear. So, when the last issues, including the Plutarch, were published, the reviewer deliberately raised his voice. He has already acknowledged this note of exaggeration to Dr. Page and Mr. Heinemann, and is ready to apologize to Mr. Loeb for the seeming discourtesy of his language—though he thinks Mr. Loeb should not have added to the harshness of the situation by taking the reviewer's questions as categorical statements. The reviewer did not mean to state as his conviction that Mr. Loeb has no desire to see the project decently executed. He asked a question which he knew would call Mr. Loeb's attention to the need of certain changes.

For there is need of change. That cannot be denied. There is no occasion to go to the expense of using India paper; indeed, the stock already used in those few of the Greek volumes which do not extend much beyond 400 pages, is more serviceable than India paper. The grave error was to extend the volumes to so many pages as to necessitate employing a transparent paper, and the reviewer knows that one or two, at least, of the translators protested against this disfigurement of their work. They protested in vain. Dr. Page asks rather helplessly what he shall do with "Theophrastus on Plants," which in a single volume would run to 700 pages, yet if published in two volumes would be excessively costly. A book of 700 pages in the format of the Loeb Library would certainly be very costly to the eyes. The thing to do is add one or two of the shorter treatises of Theophrastus, and so bring the matter up to the size of two convenient volumes.

As for the disposition of the type on the page, the reviewer repeats his charge that a surprising lack of intelligence has been displayed in this important matter. Improvement here is perfectly easy, as he indicated in his reply to Dr. Page and Mr. Heinemann.—The Reviewer.]

THE COLOR OF GREY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In consideration of the opinion recently expressed by some of our German friends regarding the present incumbent of the British Foreign Office, they may like to be reminded of the epigram on an earlier statesman who had something to do with the Kaffir War. The late James T. Fields heard the verses recited by Samuel Rogers to "Barry Cornwall" at a memorable breakfast in the elder poet's house:

A dispute has arisen of late at the Cape
As touching the Devil, his colour and shape;
While some folks contend that the Devil is white,
The others aver that he's black as midnight;
But now 'tis decided quite right in this way,
And all are convinced that the Devil is Grey!

E. T. M.

Chicago, Ill., May 5.

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Literature

BRITISH FOREIGN INVESTMENT.

The Export of Capital. By C. K. Hobson. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

This work should be found interesting by those who are trying to forecast the economic consequence of the European war. Written as a thesis for the degree of doctor of science, and completed before the outbreak of the present hostilities, it deals with a subject which to-day is vexing the minds of statesmen, economists, and captains of industry. Briefly, it is a treatise on the causes and effects of foreign investment, and necessarily involves a discussion, with statistical evidence, as to the relation between capital exports and the progress and well-being of the country making them, Great Britain being the field of investigation chosen. The author was unquestionably prompted to undertake his task by the cry that capital was being driven abroad by Socialistic legislation and confiscatory taxation.

We have here one of those intensely interesting economic works which Englishmen know so well how to produce—Hartley Withers to-day, for example, and a greater still, Bagehot, in a previous generation. There is nothing abstract about capital, yet most discussions of it are apt to view it in the abstract. Of the many merits of the work before us, perhaps the first is that of always keeping capital within the limits of concrete reality. Capital is generally measured in terms of money, but what it really consists of is goods. It is a stock of commodities employed to assist in the production of further commodities. It follows that a nation can only increase its foreign investments by sending goods abroad, by supplying foreign countries with more goods and services than would be required to pay for purchases and to meet other obligations. The goods by which British foreign investments are represented are of various kinds and are purchased in various places. Sometimes they are ordered in the United Kingdom, and figure as exports in the official statistics. In other cases they are ordered in foreign countries, and the effect may be equivalent to diverting a portion of the goods which would have been imported into Great Britain. In many parts of the world (including South America, Australia, and India), railways, which absorb more British capital than any other form of enterprise, are to a great extent constructed with British rails and materials. In North America and elsewhere the tendency is the other way. Although large amounts of British capital continued to be invested here up to July 30, 1914, the capital was more and more largely represented by goods not of British origin.

It is impossible in a review of this length to accord to the theoretic chapters of the present work more than this brief mention. Nor can full justice be done to the historical chapters, which in most happy fashion present a great amount of information which students of the economics of the present war are likely to find exceedingly helpful. To what extent is the war going to affect the amount of the world's capital, and, perhaps even more important, how far is it going to change the character of its employment? These are the paramount questions of to-day. As an aid to answering them, Mr. Hobson's historical chapters are entitled to careful study, although they were written with no prevision of existing conditions. The only situation, in modern times, at all analogous to the present is that created by the Napoleonic wars. Considering the astonishing development in the last hundred years of the resources of the earth and of the productive capacity of mankind, as a result of scientific discoveries and mechanical inventions, and of the almost incalculable enlargement of the basis of credit effected by the gold discoveries of the period, the financial strain of the Napoleonic wars is perhaps fairly comparable to what many are looking for as a consequence of the existing struggle.

The battle of Waterloo occurred only about half a century after Watt and Arkright took out their patents. Yet that period was long enough to work an astounding change in British finance. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries probably more capital was imported into Great Britain than was exported. Holland was the United Kingdom's great creditor, and Amsterdam was the principal financial centre of the world. Not until the time of the Napoleonic wars was financial supremacy transferred to London. At the close of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, wealth increased very fast in Great Britain, most of which was, however, needed for the further development of industry at home. The Napoleonic wars impoverished the Continent. What was saved from the wreckage had a tendency to flow into England for safekeeping.

At the close of the Napoleonic wars the position of Great Britain was remarkable. There had not been any considerable extension of British foreign investment during the period of war, owing to the heavy drain of capital for war loans. The national debt increased from £529,000,000 before the war to nearly £803,000,000 in 1815. Add to this the waste caused by a vicious Poor Law, which seriously injured the productive efficiency of the nation, and it will be realized that there can hardly have been any large accumulation of capital for foreign investment. This was especially the case during the later years of the war, "when the burden of the national debt had grown almost intolerable." Perhaps we can trace a sufficiently clear resemblance to existing conditions to make the experience of a century ago of no slight value as a means of forecasting the next few years.

Though exhausted by her prolonged struggle, Great Britain was able, within a generation from Waterloo, not only to put by vast amounts of capital for her own internal development, but also to supply a powerful stream of capital to assist her less wealthy neighbors. Western Europe and the United States were by far the most important fields of investment during this period, and British capital and finance were ever ready to lend a helping hand. Whether it was for insolvent Governments, or for states desirous of undertaking works of public utility, such as canals, banks, and railways, or for private enterprises and companies requiring capital or skill, British energy and the British purse were always available at a price. "The remarkable thing perhaps is," says Mr. Hobson, "that money should have been secured at any price"; for, in addition to everything else, there was a withdrawal of capital invested in Great Britain for safe custody during the war.

As a matter of fact, the ten years following 1815 were a period of very rapid industrial development, both in Europe and America. Though the demand for capital was, in pounds sterling, only a fraction of what it is likely to be during the decade upon which the world has now entered, it was conceivably, considering the infinitely smaller wealth of the world, not strikingly out of proportion to the demand of the next few years. Without the slightest intention of opening up such a field of discussion, Mr. Hobson nevertheless furnishes us material which will perhaps cause us to modify many of the views so far formulated regarding the economic results of the present war.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Double Traitor. By E. Phillips Oppenheim. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

The war has given to Mr. Oppenheim a position almost vatic. Has he not for years been making the most amazing disclosures as to international intrigue, and particularly German machinations against the safety of England, and has not the prophetic light which he has shed on the situation paled before the sensationalism of the event? What Mr. Oppenheim will do when the war is over and there is no dragon left to slay, one can only guess; for the present, however, it is not from any lack of inspiration, but, if anything, from the abundance of it, that he suffers. The diplomatic events that preceded the war, as partially revealed, afford ample material, and it requires but small exercise of Mr. Oppenheim's fertile imagination to fill up any interstices that may be left in the fabric. "The Double Traitor" is a young Englishman, debarred from further pursuit of a diplomatic career through a previous unfortunate encounter in Berlin, who by chance penetrates the disguise of a harmless Teutonic merchant of crockery operating in England and discovers the head of the German spy system in that country. Flouted by Scotland Yard and the Foreign Office, to which he takes his discovery, he determines to play a lone hand, and turns "double traitor" by entering the service of the German spy and at the crucial moment exposing the machinations of the system. How vital his discoveries are may be judged from the fact that

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we learn for the first time from Mr. Oppenheim the secret of how the British fleet came so opportunely to be mobilized, and at its stations in the North Sea when war was declared. Perhaps Mr. Oppenheim does rather more than justice to the stupidity of German diplomacy and rather less than justice to the intelligence of the British secret service, but he has written a readable and exciting story.

Alice and a Family. By St. John G. Ervine. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is a much lighter story than the "Mrs. Martin's Man" of this author, which was reviewed not long ago in these columns. There was work of realism touched with comedy, here is a cockney comedy based upon realism. Alice is a sort of girlish Mrs. Martin. She has the poise, the self-sufficiency, the practical ability, and the warm heart of that much-tested woman. These qualities she applies to the successful rescue of the inefficient Nudd family, one member of which, the boy "'Erbie," she has quietly and definitively marked for her own. Nudd *père* has been left a widower with a bad arm, 'Erbie, and three small daughters. Apart from his function as a navvy he is helpless; but 'Erbie's friend is sufficient for the task of managing his family in connection with him. It is she who, with the aid of a fanciful gentleman-Socialist, procures old Nudd sufficient compensation for his injury, under the Employers' Liability Act, and with the proceeds sets him up in the newspaper, tobacco, and stationery business. It is she who, single-handed, puts the Nudd establishment upon a firm basis by marrying her only less capable parent to 'Erbie's father—an arrangement which permits her, Alice, to take permanent charge. In the end there is a hint that she may presently, when their ages permit of another permanent arrangement, transfer 'Erbie to a shop of their own. Alice is worthy to be added to the lengthening line of lower-class heroines of dauntless and full-blooded mould—like Mrs. Martin and the elder Alice of "Buried Alive." We have our own Mrs. Wiggs—was she, perhaps, the prototype?

The Honey Bee. By Samuel Merwin. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

The honey bee is Hilda Wilson, a woman of thirty, who earns eight thousand a year as head of a department in a big New York store. She has had one serious affair of love with a former employer, a superior man unhappily married. They have parted on a high plane of feeling and conduct, and Hilda, who has a mother and family to look out for, devotes herself to her career. She succeeds, but at the beginning of the present action is on the verge of collapse from overwork. Her employer urges a holiday, and a Parisian chance finally tempts her. The adventure which follows is, however, human rather than amatory. It begins, to be sure, in a sudden intimacy with a group, the most distinguished and winning member of which is a prize-fighter. Blink Moran is an American, a middleweight without fear and without reproach. A chief incident, worked up to through many long chapters, is his encounter with the French heavyweight champion, in which Blink is defeated by ill-fortune rather than by desert. Equally detailed attention is given to the joint care by Hilda and Blink of a baby which has fallen into their hands. In time Blink proposes marriage to Hilda, but though he physically attracts her, she remains true to the object of her youthful love. This man, not altogether unexpectedly, turns up after a time, and is able to offer himself to her in earnest; but he is a stricken man, and dies under Hilda's care in a London hotel. There remains for Hilda only a return to her job, and a realization that for her the life of the honey bee, which works until it dies, is the only possibility. The realization falls short of anguish: "Working up through the sorrow that was now and was always to be a deep note in the harmony of her life, she became conscious of a sort of relief." In detail the narrative, despite its essentially romantic quality, belongs to that order of realistic fiction which the latest school of British novelists is so brilliantly practicing. Unluckily, it is cumbered with far more than its normal complement of that bane of realism—detail introduced as if helplessly and haplessly detail for its own sake.

The Man Who Forgot. By James Hay, Jr. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The author of this book is a son of Congressman Hay, and as the major portion of the setting of the tale is amidst political circles in Washington, the writer, as might be expected, has painted a convincing background. The book is frankly a piece of propaganda in favor of prohibition. In spite of this, or even because of it, one finds such sincerity in the treatment that one is inclined to overlook the weak spots. The first chapter is introductory and tells of a man in the last stages of mental and moral collapse from drink, who wanders into a house of refuge situated in the slums of a great city, presumably New York. Forgetting even his name, the man is alive only on his emotional side, and raves of his past. The founder of the refuge, a young society girl and the daughter of a prominent politician, enters during this scene and displays a natural interest in the actor of the leading rôle. Finally the ravings subside, the man falls into a drunken stupor, and the curtain drops. The main story opens five years later in Washington. The whole city is interested in an unknown man who has come from no one knows where, calling himself John Smith, and started an active crusade against drink. The man is, of course, the sot of the introduction, reformed, but with no recollection of his past prior to the episode of five years previous. In his present fight, Smith comes against a corrupt politician whose daughter is the girl of the refuge; with her Smith promptly falls in love. The story of the love affair, of the return of Smith's memory, and of the great conflict, ending with a huge mass meeting at the steps of the Capitol, with delegates from every section of the country, is, from at least one standpoint, distinctly interesting. There are a great many statistics scattered throughout the book—too many for a novel.

ENGLISH FICTION IN 1800.

The French Revolution and the English Novel. By Allene Gregory. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75 net.

In this volume, Miss Gregory has made an interesting and valuable addition to the list, now rapidly growing, of monographic chapters in the history of the English novel. It is a history of radical thought in England at the close of the eighteenth century. The author deals with novels which reflect radical ideas of the time from 1780 to about 1800, and makes various excursions into the nineteenth century, and into other forms of literature. The "revolutionary thought" discussed is of all sorts: ideas on political reforms; emancipation for men, women, children, including negroes; humanitarianism and prison reform; social abuses; radical thought in religion; in fact, almost all conceivable changes in the existing order of the time. To this material Miss Gregory applies the "historical method" in her discussion, sketching in a "background of thought" and a "background of events" against which she shows us the figures of the novelists, always in terms of the life of the time. The chapter on the writers of feministic fiction is of special interest. Of real value to the student of the novel is the collection and correlation of material in chapter i, the two "backgrounds," material which hitherto the student has been obliged to collect for himself from scattered sources.

The novels of the period Miss Gregory finds hardly worth studying as literature; their real value, she declares, "lies not in their intrinsic merit, but in the illustrations they offer of the practice of revolutionary ethics, as conceived by its sympathizers and its opponents." She finds "these same obscure novels," which have little or no vitality to-day, very significant "as a means of gaining insight into the intellectual and (in a broad sense) spiritual life" of the period. What we have, then, is a period of intellectual and spiritual activity, not at all dramatic in so far as England was concerned, palely reflected in the novels, and reflected again by Miss Gregory from them to us. The action in France was, of course, dramatic enough, but the English novelists were either too near it or too far away for their purpose—at all events, to try to follow it through the medium of their novels is hardly more inspiriting than to try to follow the progress of a football game by listening to the cheering of the spectators.

This is perhaps the reason why the subject of the book which shines with such promise as a title fades perceptibly as we approach it. England was in a ferment, it is true, but it was a ferment of ideas and not of acts; and

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not one of the novelists of the time was qualified to give us a drama of the inner life of a nation. The "background of thought" which the author sketches is historically enlightening, but the reader does not expect it to give rise to much in the way of art, especially that of the novel, until it becomes "clothed upon with acts and the words of men." For poetry, this emotion and thought proved better material. The reader turns, then, with anticipation to the sketch of the "background of events."

Here he finds two classes of events recorded: those which are eventful but not English, and those of England which are not eventful. Of the first, the French Revolution itself, English novelists (until we come to Dickens) give us only the palest sort of ghost, by no means illuminating as a spirit of the times. In the second category, Miss Gregory has only the English "attitude" towards the Revolution, which no novelist succeeded in turning into an event, and the "industrial revolution." This last is described by mention of the conditions which preceded it, the naming of the inventions which immediately gave rise to it, and the assertion that the Revolution was "practically complete by 1790."

If the industrial revolution means the change from handcraft to machine manufacture, it was far from complete by 1790—and certainly it is not until long after the period to which Miss Gregory limits her discussion that it appears in any enlightening form in the novel. The change came about chiefly during the war with France; indeed, it may fairly be said that it was the war abroad which made possible the industrial peace in England from 1792 to 1814. During this time, the machines were accepted with apparent docility because there was work enough for all, even with the machines, and market for all that the machines could turn out. But when, after Waterloo, thousands of discharged soldiers wished to take up work at home, the case was different. Then the real pressure of the situation was felt, and caused upheavals. In these eruptions, Luddite and Bristol riots, Manchester meetings, and "Peterloo" massacres are the dramatic "events" of the industrial revolution which reveal the more or less hidden processes that went before. And the novels which give us our real understanding of it all are not those of Miss Gregory's list, but rather such as "Mary Barton," "Alton Locke," "Shirley," and "Felix Holt."

Indeed, scarcely one of the radical ideas of the period was ripe either for action or for purposes of fiction until the nineteenth century. The agitation for Parliamentary reform which culminated in the Reform Bill of 1832 was hardly ready for fiction in "Coningsby" (1844). Feminism in England has not yet brought forth either a victory or an artist. The slave trade was not abolished till 1807. In spite of the Factory Act of 1833 and all subsequent legislation, child labor is still a problem for reformers and novelists. Prison reform, whatever may have been accomplished, does not find expression till after the middle of the nineteenth century, in "Little Dorrit" and "Never Too Late to Mend."

In one sense, Miss Gregory has done as well as one could ask just what she set out to do; she has given us a scholarly discussion of the novels of the revolutionary period, one which is as interesting as it could be made within the limits which the author has set for herself. The declared object of the work, however, the gaining of insight into the period itself, might have been better served if she had extended the limits far enough to compare and contrast the novels of the time with those which give it its fuller expression. By this process we might gain the deepest insight—if we were to check the reports of the close-range observers in the thick of the struggle with those of writers who recollect its emotions with more tranquillity.

IMPRESSIONS OF JAPAN.

The Spell of Japan. By Isabel Anderson. Boston: The Page Company. $2.50.

As wife of our Ambassador to Japan during the last Administration, the writer had rare opportunities of contributing something of unique value to our knowledge of Tokyo as a social and political centre. Already from one of the Tokyo embassies a lady of American parentage, but born and educated abroad, and married to an Englishman, had sent forth books dealing with Japan in a delightful way. Why should not a Bostonian, from her home in the American Embassy, "go one better" and contribute a really masterly book for the benefit of her countrymen, and especially her countrywomen?

A perusal of the chapters, however, reveals a sad inadequacy on the part of the writer for a really difficult task. The very first chapter is a tantalizing hodge-podge of itinerary and information. Instead of describing in forthright fashion her long journey from Brussels to Kyoto (where she lands her readers at the opening of the second chapter), adding informing details always from the point of view of the traveller, the writer delays by the way to misinform them about the Russo-Japanese War, "which terminated in the flight of the Russians from Manchuria," and to devote three pages to the colonial possessions of Japan, Saghalien, the southern half of which was ceded (restored?) to Japan in 1895, and Formosa, whose lofty peak, Mount Morrison, "higher than Fuji, has been renamed by the Japanese Nii-taka-yama, the New High Mountain." But why not also tell us that the island is now called Taiwan?

The book is good up to a certain point. If it were in the form of a series of friendly letters, the information given would be interesting and often delightful. Mrs. Anderson writes with sympathy and appreciation of the country and the people, and evidently enjoyed the trips she made. But lack of historical and political grasp, when she ventures boldly into these fields, is only too painfully apparent. The great Empress Jingo Kogo is called Singokogu, Hideyoshi is termed a shogun, the Kamakura shoguns are ignored, and feudalism is said to have reached its perfection under the rule of Iyeyasu, who was really the Richelieu of his country, and converted feudal Japan into a bureaucracy.

The numerous Japanese words scattered through the chapters require careful revision; *e. g.*, *naisan*, *shooku*, *kabuti*, for *nesan*, *shochu*, *kabuki*. The writer's habit, not uniformly carried out, happily, of adding the English plural s to foreign italicized words, is objectionable; *e. g.*, *obis*, *daimyos*, *bettos*. These errors or shortcomings can be adjusted from the dictionary, but the carelessness which is shown in the matter of proper names is more regrettable. Baroness Sannomiya appears as Sonnomiya, the novelist Soseki Natsume as Osaki Batsume, Koyo Ozaki as Kozo Ozaki, Harugiku as Harikiki, and so on to a weariness. And why are Rohan Koda and Kyoka Izumi, "the latter of whom was termed the Japanese Maeterlinck," spoken of in the past tense? Count Okuma, of all men, suffers the same fate at page 99. It is a pity that, writing for an American public, Mrs. Anderson, in mentioning Mr. Nagasaki, Court Councillor and Master of Ceremonies, more than once, and referring to his excellent English, did not add that he received his education at the University of Michigan.

There is an interesting account of educational conditions in the chapter New Light for Old:

> The second school which particularly interested me was Miss Tsuda's. Miss Tsuda herself was one of several Japanese children from good families, who, when they were very young, were sent to America to be educated. Three of the girls, it is said, decided at school how they wished to live their lives. One said that above all things she should marry for love and in the Western fashion, and so it was—she met a young Japanese studying in America, and they were married and returned to Japan. The second one said she wished to be a power, and she returned home and in Japanese fashion was married by her parents to a very prominent leader in political life. Miss Tsuda felt that she wished to help her countrywomen, and that she would remain unmarried and devote her life to education. So, curiously enough, these three women have carried out the ideals of their childhood.

The story is substantially true; but may be improved upon. The first of the girls, by so marrying, lost her inheritance, which fell to her parents' original choice; and the second married, not a leading politician, but the general who commanded the Imperial troops at the great battle of Mukden.

The interesting chapter on Flowers, Indoors and Out, contains some inaccuracies. The statement that "In the province of Kai there is a hill called Chrysanthemum Mount, overhanging a river into which the petals fall," is vitiated by the fact that chrysanthemums do not shed their petals, but wither on the stem. And the Prose, Poetry, and Plays chapter has more serious blun-

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ders. There is a translation given of a poem, "The Priest," by Akiko; she and her husband Hiroshi (not Horoshi) "are known as the Brownings of Japan."

Soft is thy skin;
Thou hast never touched blood,
O teacher of ways
Higher than mortal:
How lonely thou art!

This is really a fling at academic exponents of outworn ethics who are ascetic towards women, and it may be translated: "Never touching the breast, so soft and tender, burning with youthful blood, feelest thou not, O teacher of morals, how lonely thou art?" As they stand, the lines are meaningless. And the exquisite *uta* given on page 140, and called one of "Bashô's epigrams"—

At every door
The pine-trees stand:
One mile-post more
To the spirit land;
And as there's gladness,
So there's sadness,

—should be ascribed to the monk Ikkyu, who lived many centuries before Bashô.

THE PANAMA CANAL.

The Panama Canal and International Trade Competition. By Lincoln Hutchinson. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.

In 1900 Prof. Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, made a comprehensive report on the industrial and commercial value of the Isthmian Canal. This report was included as an appendix to a subsequent report made in 1912 to the Secretary of War by Professor Johnson, acting as special commissioner on Panama traffic and tolls; and this latter work, together with the author's personal observation made while visiting the countries of the Pacific Coast, consular reports, and various official publications of the United States and foreign governments, forms the material on which Professor Hutchinson, of the University of California, has drawn in the preparation of his book. Although published this year, it was written before the outbreak of the European war. So far as can be judged now, however, the effects of the war on international trade have served to intensify, or rather to hasten, certain tendencies which Mr. Hutchison analyzes. The elimination of Germany as a competitor for international trade has, of course, given opportunities for expansion of United States trade which could not be predicted from any study of economic conditions; but it is a high compliment to Mr. Hutchinson's book that the development has been much along the lines which he predicted.

Mr. Hutchinson's general plan is scientific and logical. He gives a comprehensive description of trade routes prior to the opening of the Canal, and with this provides a simple and illuminating table showing the approximate costs per voyage and per ton of freight. He then points out the changes in distances and the probable changes in approximate costs by the Panama Canal. This is followed by a comparative analysis of the effect which the opening of the Canal will have on costs from New York, on the one hand, and Liverpool, on the other, to the Pacific Coast countries. A very interesting description is given of the countries of the Pacific Coast and of the Atlantic, a general study is made of recent trade movements, and a detailed description is furnished of the import and export trade of the countries whose international trade may reasonably be expected to be affected by the opening of the Panama Canal. These countries include the entire west coast of North and South America, Japan, the Philippine Islands, Australia, and New Zealand, and, to a certain extent, Shanghai and that part of China tributary to it.

Previous to the opening of the Canal New York had a slight advantage over Liverpool as to cost of waterborne freight to all ports on the west coast of both North and South America; but Mr. Hutchinson estimates that the use of the Panama Canal will increase New York's advantage from five to ten times and will make the service from New York 30 to 46 per cent. cheaper than from Liverpool. New York was at a disadvantage as compared with Liverpool in cost of service to Australia and New Zealand previous to the opening of the Canal. Now, however, it is estimated that New York will have an advantage of from 5½ to 28 per cent. over Liverpool.

Of course, where two shippers having different facilities for transportation are competing in the same market, if the goods they have to offer are of the same quality, a fractional difference in transportation costs is of immense importance in determining the ultimate outcome of the competition. On the other hand, where the character of goods is widely different, even a 10 or 20 per cent. difference in cost of transportation, assuming that of the value of the goods laid down at the market not more than a quarter is made up of the charge for transportation, may not be great enough to determine finally the results of the competition in favor of the shipper having the lower cost of transportation. Mr. Hutchinson not only recognizes this fact, but again and again lays stress on it. His detailed study of the imports and exports of the countries whose trade will be affected by the opening of the Panama Canal leads him to the conclusion that "the great opportunity for the development of American trade with the Pacific countries lies in the possibility of our seizing a large share of the rapidly increasing commerce in the numerous products of other than textile manufacturing industries. . . . Preëminent among manufactures of this sort are clearly the various materials of construction, especially of iron and steel." Bridge material, material for railway construction, machine tools, material for the construction and equipment of street railways, mining machinery and agricultural machinery, electrical motors, books, paper, furniture, household goods, are some of the commodities in the widely diversified lists which Mr. Hutchinson gives as examples of the lines along which trade between the Eastern seaboard of the United States and the countries of the Pacific Coast will be developed. It is particularly in Bolivia, Chili, Ecuador, Peru, Australia, New Zealand, and Japan that Mr. Hutchinson's studies would indicate that the development of American trade will be greatly helped. He does not think that the lack either of mercantile marine or of adequate banking facilities will be insurmountable barriers to the successful competition of the United States with England and Germany. This failure to give due weight to banking facilities is one point on which recent developments have apparently proved Professor Hutchinson wrong. It would appear that banking facilities should, and probably will, precede any large expansion of foreign trade of the United States. The steps which the National City Bank of New York has taken to establish branches in South America; the forced banking credits which European countries have established in the United States, with the consequent shift of the facilities of foreign exchange from London to New York, are apparently giving a greater impetus and a greater scope to the development of foreign trade than would have been possible for a number of years without such changes.

Mr. Hutchinson does not go into the question of the changes that will take place and are taking place in the trade between the Atlantic seaboard and the Pacific Coast of the United States itself. In regard to this the Interstate Commerce Commission, in a recent case in which it permitted the railways to put in low rates from the territory east of Pittsburgh to the Pacific Coast in order to meet competition by way of the Panama Canal, expressed the belief that we are witnessing the beginning of a new era in transportation between the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts. It might be pointed out also that there is in process of adjustment a change in relationship among the various ports of the United States. The Gulf ports have long looked forward to a very much larger business after the opening of the Canal. Only to a small extent has this business materialized so far, but this may be due to the business depression. The purchase in 1909 of the Colorado & Southern by the Burlington has generally been considered a far-sighted attempt on James J. Hill's part to forestall this drastic competition on the part of the Gulf ports for import and export business. Though, of course, the greater part of the articles which are enumerated by Mr. Hutchinson as being particularly suitable for mediums of development for the foreign trade of the United States are manufactured in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, there are some which originate in the Middle West. Furniture from Michigan for export could move either to New Orleans or to New York; steel manufactures could be shipped from the Pittsburgh district to New York or from the Chicago and Gary district to New Orleans or Galveston.

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While Mr. Hutchinson's book deals primarily with competition in international trade, and can quite properly ignore or touch upon only casually the local conditions within the United States, still it is a subject of very great interest to the American manufacturer who may be considering the question of himself entering this competition. Written, of course, primarily to instruct the serious student, the book smacks at times a little too much of the schoolmaster, especially in the tendency to reiterate points which the author is particularly anxious to make clear.

DEFECTS IN ENGLISH LAW.

The Law and the Poor. By Edward Abbott Parry. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.

Judge Parry has demonstrated the fact that a man may sit for over twenty years on the County Court bench in England without any damage to heart or brain, and, moreover, still keep a lively sense of humor and a very pretty style of literary composition. A more persuasive piece of "reform" literature it would be hard to imagine, and withal a vastly entertaining book, studded as it is with ancient instances appositely quoted and anecdotes as pertinent as they are amusing. Imprisonment for debt, workmen's compensation, bankruptcy, divorce, poverty and procedure, landlord and tenant, licensing laws, and the police court—all are treated from a most practical point of view, and the inequality of incidence upon rich and poor of the burdens connected with these institutions is pointed out with unerring accuracy of emphasis. The book is written for "the man in the street," is, in fact, formally dedicated to him "in the pious hope that he will take up his job and do it." The "job" that Judge Parry wants him to do is to interest himself in legal reform and help to remedy the abuses which remain uncorrected in both the theory and practice of English law.

The first article in the "Magna Charta for the poor" that Judge Parry wants (p. 288) would forbid imprisonment for civil debt and the second would give county courts jurisdiction in divorce. He would also exempt from seizure the tools and chattels of a working man—enough to furnish "a reasonable house" (p. 293), would cut down police court fines and give reasonable time to pay them, would make the community bear costs of proceedings in the police court, would make bankruptcy law really available to the poor, and would try to cut the litigation out of the practical working of the compensation acts. As he states the case with regard to each one of these reforms it is hard to see why they have not been carried out long ago. Judge Parry has a great advantage over most of his colleagues in the ranks of "reform"; he knows the facts thoroughly, he does not shout or develop hysteria, he is tolerant of the "other man's" views (and of humanity's shortcomings generally), and consequently he is uncommonly persuasive in his argumentation.

Speaking of the criminal courts, he points out that in England the power of gold has been without influence upon them:

> Any preferential treatment that exists is of a class character—snobbish, if you will, but not corrupt. As an Irish barrister said to me at Liverpool—he was a great Home Ruler with a grand hatred of England and a real affection for many Englishmen: "My dear Parry, you'll never convince me that the Government ever meant to hang Mrs. Maybrick. They're a cowardly lot of snobs, and anyhow they couldn't hang a woman they might have to meet out at dinner afterwards." (P. 203.)

The book is good reading for the anecdotes alone. One may hope that the learned author will not become a convert to Socialism some day. If he should happen to do so, he is likely to write a book that will be dangerous.

Notes

"A Bit o' Love," by John Galsworthy, is announced for immediate publication by Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Thomas Y. Crowell Co. announces for immediate publication "The Meaning of Christian Unity," by William H. Cobb.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce the forthcoming publication of Paul Vergnet's "France in Danger, or French Nationality Menaced by Pan-German Aggression," translated by Beatrice Barstow, and "Schools of To-morrow," by John and Evelyn Dewey.

"Practical Mysticism: A Little Book for Normal People" (Dutton; $1 net), is Miss Evelyn Underhill's third contribution to the study of mysticism. It is not intended as an addition to our knowledge of history, philosophy, or psychology, but, as the title implies, is merely an attempt to show the "practical" man what mysticism really means and to bring home to him the transcendent value it might have in his life if he would only taste and see—and follow directions. Mysticism is defined as the "Art of Union with Reality." Now union, we are told, is the condition of every sort of knowledge, and all men practice union; hence the difference between the mystic and the non-mystical is to be found in the object with which they severally "unite." The "practical" man "unites" with and is living in a world of unreality, in which he mistakes labels for things. He has lost the innocence of the eye through a set of conventions which he has adopted quite uncritically and which he forces upon the real world so that it is hidden from him. Even he, however, has mystical moments in which the senses speak to him directly (as they do to the artist), and when behind the sense world he discerns "a *whole fact*—at once divinely simple and infinitely various—from which these partial messages proceed; and which seeks, as it were, to utter itself in them." For the mystics—and all of us in our mystical moments—find the world of sense to be a symbol of the One Reality which shines through it. To make habitual these passing glimpses of the Real a rather long and elaborate training is necessary; and much more than half of Miss Underhill's book is given to a careful description of it. In laying down her directions for the practical man's guidance, Miss Underhill adopts the well-worn path of the mediæval mystics, with its fivefold division. First comes "Recollection," or the discipline and simplification of the attention, and secondly "Purgation," or the simplification of the affections and the will through Detachment and Mortification. These two are preliminary processes, and after practicing them conscientiously our "practical" novice is assured he may enter into the three stages of Contemplation, in which one "unites" respectively with Nature and the World of Becoming, with the Spiritual World of Being, and finally with the Divine World of Ultimate Fact. The experiences which may be expected in each of these "Worlds" are described, the descriptions, of course, being based on the testimony of the great mystics. In the final chapter, on The Mystic Life, the author emphasizes the fact that the true mystic is not a mere visionary, but a very active person, and from the sense of an encircling and abiding Reality behind changing forms which his mystical experiences have brought him, he brings into active life a strength and a calmness which the non-mystic, however brave and strong, can never share.

"Practical Mysticism" is a delightful little book, but it is to be feared that it will have but small success in converting the "practical man." So blinded is he by his "labels" that he will probably consider the mystic's apprehension of "Reality" behind the sensuous world as due principally to "imagination" and "emotion"; and he will perhaps think that the mystic has made over immediate reality quite as much as have the rest of us, merely substituting the poetic imagination and its symbols for the principle of utility and its labels. He may, in fact, even ask Miss Underhill whether there is any fundamental difference after all between labels and symbols. But even should our author persuade the practical man of the truth of her position, it is extremely doubtful whether she will ever persuade him to follow her through the long fivefold path of the Mystic Way. And it may be questioned whether it is desirable that she should succeed. For the principle criticism upon this book is to be found in the fact that it identifies mysticism with a particular type of mental discipline devised by the mediæval mystics, and based upon a particular world-view which they took over largely from Neo-Platonism. This conventionalized form of procedure was appropriate and useful through the Middle Ages, but it is useless to seek its adoption to-day. If the twentieth century is to see a revival of mysticism it must develop a simpler and less scholastic type. And much though Miss Underhill has accomplished in making mysticism attractive to modern readers, she has done no service in identifying it with a particular succession of induced psychic states which are more foreign to the modern man than are the emotional extravagances of John Wesley's "conversion experience."

Mr. Rossiter Johnson's pleasant little book, "Captain John Smith" (Macmillan; 50 cents), written for young readers, is frankly eulogistic. The able, brave, and patriotic Captain well deserves a place in the mind and heart of the lad who cares for the life-stories of men of action—and what boy is not fond of such recitals! The volume will no doubt find ready welcome. It is to be hoped, too, that it will

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not only interest its readers for the moment, but will also create a desire, in after years, for a more intimate view of the redoubtable soldier, explorer, and colonizer. This can best be obtained by reading Smith's own works. One would expect such a book as Mr. Johnson's "Captain John Smith" to be neither critical nor exhaustive; but one has a right to expect accuracy in the statement of the common facts of history wherever found. Mr. Johnson, like many writers before him, has evidently followed the line of least resistance, accepting as verities statements which a careful reading of even the secondary authorities would have shown were of doubtful parentage. To cite but a single instance, he says (p. 48): "As early as 1497, John and Sebastian Cabot (born in Venice, but residents of England and sailing in the service of the English Government) had landed on the coast of Labrador, and discovered Newfoundland." There is no evidence extant to show that John Cabot's son, Sebastian, accompanied him on the voyage of 1497; it is highly improbable that the great navigator was a Venetian by birth; and, furthermore, it is far from being certain that Cabot's landfall was on the coast of Labrador; in fact, the preponderance of evidence is undoubtedly against this conclusion.

The chief importance of Mr. Floyd J. Melvin's book, "Socialism as the Sociological Ideal" (Sturgis & Walton; $1.25 net), is in the evidence that it gives of the present-day drift of Socialist thought away from the materialistic determination of Marx towards a conscious and (as the current phraseology has it) "purposeful" idealism. It is necessary only to look at what he calls the "sociological definition of Socialism" to see this very plainly:

> With these facts in mind we may hazard the approximation that *Socialism is the social system which seeks by means of the social control of heredity and environment to direct the further progress of civilization in accordance with the ideals arising through social self-consciousness.*

Mr. Melvin's thesis is that Socialism (of the Marxian type) ought to come and probably will come, because it is desirable—not that it will come because it is inevitable. Needless to say, there is a world of difference between these two views of the matter. Mr. Melvin is a Utopian pure and simple, and the fact is that Socialism of to-day is rapidly assuming the Utopian form, save on the soap-box and rostra of a similar kind. His book contains no thought of a particularly original character, but is a not unattractive presentation of this point of view.

From the Princeton University Press comes a second edition of Dr. C. C. Mierow's Gothic History of Jordanes in an English version. The first edition, published in 1908, was without all critical apparatus. The present one adds a considerable Introduction, giving personal and literary details about the author, a discussion of his sources, chronological and genealogical tables, and a select bibliography. A running commentary, occupying nearly fifty pages, supplies valuable aids to an understanding of the many problems suggested by the text. The translation is carefully done, with due regard to the rude style of the original. Jordanes's disregard of grammatical forms and rules of syntax makes the task of the translator anything but a grateful one. At the same time it shelters him from the worst form of criticism, since in every doubtful passage one scholar's judgment is about as good as another's.

Dr. Charles E. Gehlke has done a service to every student of sociology by his recent work on "Durkheim's Contributions to Sociological Theory." (Columbia University Studies in Political Science. Vol. LXIII, No. 1; Longmans, Green.) For Durkheim's views, embedded in monographs, books, reviews of other books, and articles in the *Année Sociologique,* are peculiarly in need of correlation, and Dr. Gehlke's presentation of them is both scholarly and just The most notable thing in the book is the emphasis laid upon Durkheim's views of individual and social psychology: Dr. Gehlke has shown that these are fundamental to all the more important parts of Durkheim's sociology. By neglecting this crucial point in Durkheim's social theory, many of his critics have wasted their ammunition. Dr. Gehlke is not one of Durkheim's critics—in fact, it is one of the merits of his book that he carefully refrains from acting as either critic or champion. But he does point out very clearly both the strong and the weak points of the theory he is expounding. And he makes it abundantly evident that the adoption of Durkheim's sociology must logically involve the acceptance of the theory of the compounding and recompounding of representations, with all the rest of the surprising "Durkheimian" psychology.

Rescued from the files of the two New Orleans papers, the *Item* and the *Times-Democrat,* to which Lafcadio Hearn contributed during his sojourn in that romantic city, these derelict pieces contained in "Fantastics and Other Fancies" (Houghton Mifflin; $5 net) are now collected and published, in artistic dress, for the first time. Naturally, about them clings something of the exotic perfume with which Hearn drenched his most beautiful Japanese fancies some years later, together with abundant evidence of the esoteric taste destined to be so brilliantly developed. Beyond providing an interesting literary link for the story of his vagabond life in this country, these slight efforts will add nothing to the finished and ultimate expression which Hearn found in Japan, and upon which his fame must rest. From a literary point of view, these pastels, full of characteristic color and vivid imagination, provoke an interesting question that the strenuous journalism of to-day will brusquely put aside. Are the conditions that made possible the harboring of such exquisite literary waifs within the polyglot columns of the daily press still favorable for their creation and adoption? Certainly our American metropolitan experience is definite: to discover a prose pastel in the ruck of the day's news is not our latter-day fortune. Quotations there are in plenty from the liberal and obliging magazines, but they lack the *genius loci;* evidently the "average readers" are no longer magically converted into discerning literary conspirators. Hearn found in New Orleans a *milieu* more or less propitious, with its old-world traditions surviving in daily life and culture. The Creoles, with their French and Spanish heritage, are responsible for more than half the inspiration in this little book, while the remaining studies found life in Hearn's natural love for the mystical Orient. Perhaps, after all, just this passionate, personal admiration and support of a locality was necessary for the genesis of a shy artist like Hearn, even as it was, in varying degree, for Mark Twain, Bret Harte, and Kipling. In each case conditions for the flowering of a precocious type of genius would seem to depend upon peculiar social conditions, upon a sentimental isolation, partial or complete, from the rich benefits of a national civilization. Memories, for the most part, persist in pricking the lonely and detached writer, as indeed they haunted, in lesser degree, the sensitive readers. The 'forty-niners of California read intimate studies of themselves against the background of the East they had forsaken; Kipling in like manner harrowed or amused his Anglo-Indian exiles, while Lafcadio Hearn, in these fugitive exotics, lures his romantic and sentimental Creoles with arabesques on old Spain, the Moors, Italian opera, and old New Orleans.

The popularization of ecclesiastical history has received very little attention among us, and we are glad to notice some excellent works that deal with this important subject. "The Early Church," by Dean George Hodges (Houghton Mifflin; $1.75), is a clear and attractive sketch of the struggle of the Church down to the first quarter of the fifth century, largely biographical, with descriptions of contemporary conditions in the Roman world. A similar work is "Biographical Studies in Scottish Church History," by Anthony Mitchell, Bishop of Aberdeen and Orkney (Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co.; $1.50). This volume, which is an exposition of the part played by espiscopacy in Scotland, contains much curious information. Along with this may be mentioned Dean Hodges's booklet "The Episcopal Church, Its Faith and Order," giving the substance of his instruction in the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, including a spiritualized exposition of the creed. A biographical work of peculiar form is "The Psalms in Human Life," by R. E. Prothero, formerly of All Souls College, Oxford (Dutton, new and enlarged edition; $1.50). The author cites the use of the Psalms by prominent persons of all classes, in all Christian bodies; he thus gives a sketch of the inner Christian life down to the present day. Articles of interest appear in "Papers of the American Society of Church History," Second Series, Vol. IV (Putnam; $3); among others one on "The College of Cardinals and the Veto," by Professor Washburne, of the Cambridge Episcopal Theological School, and one on "The Religious History of the Negroes in the South," by Professor Reed, of the Columbia Theological Seminary, Columbia, S. C.

"The Establishment of Christianity and the Proscription of Paganism," by Dr. Maude A. Huttmann, is a doctor's thesis, published by Columbia University as Vol. LX, No. 2, in "Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law." The author discusses toleration under Constantine and laws against paganism in the Roman codes. She concludes that, while Constantine may be regarded as "the first Christian Emperor and the first to put Christianity quite on a par with paganism, he was neither the first to make Christianity a legal religion, for Galerius had done that in 311, nor the first to legislate against pagan cults; for that his successors are responsible." The dissertation is a thorough and well-considered piece of work.

Four volumes have been added to the Home University Library (Holt: 50 cents net each). In "The Negro," W. E. Burghardt Du Bois summarizes much of the history of Africa, in-

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cluding in his survey peoples that many authorities would call "Negroids" rather than "Negroes," and then takes up the story of the negro in the western hemisphere. If he does not, to paraphrase Macaulay, always escape the danger of suffocation beneath the weight of his fuel, he has succeeded in making a book that will be informing to a multitude of readers. Any one wearying of the mass of detail in the early chapters is recommended to pass to chapter viii on African Culture. The later chapters are more lucid, owing to the vanishing of the necessity for extreme conciseness. "The Ancient East," by D. G. Hogarth, proceeds upon the novel plan of raising the curtain at the end of 200-year periods, starting at 1000 B. C. This method, in the author's skilful hands, imparts a dramatic character to the narrative and makes for a clarity and vividness that are not usually obtained in accounts of early eras. Maurice Baring, the author of "An Outline of Russian Literature," is confessedly an enthusiast who is setting out to enlighten his readers upon a great subject. In places, his admiration leads him into extravagant language, which may be qualified later on. Nevertheless, he has written a well-informed little volume the net effect of which should be about what he desires. He is well advised in devoting nine-tenths of his pages to the nineteenth century. In "The Navy and Sea Power," David Hannay has a thesis to develop as well as a history to record. The thesis—which he does not present in any dogmatic manner—is that too much meaning must not be given to the imagination-stirring phrase "sea power." "It is a dream that power on the sea can dominate the land. It is valuable because it gives access to the land." In an article in the April *Edinburgh Review*, he is more specific: "If ever we make a great army our chief weapon and contend with the military states on their own field, we shall bring upon ourselves, by our own act, the very evil which destroyed our predecessors and rivals among maritime Powers." The history he presents is not limited to that of his own country, but begins as near the beginning of navies as possible and traces their development in all quarters of the world. He has a curious style, an occasional obscure phrase marring a generally colorful mode of expression.

In "The Charm of Scandinavia," by Francis E. Clark and Sydney A. Clark (Little, Brown; $2.50 net), the founder of the Christian Endeavor Society and his son have written enthusiastically of their travels in the three Scandinavian countries and in Finland. Unfortunately, the narrative suffers from a cumbersome dramatic device. We are asked to imagine that two travellers, Phillips and Aylmer, write letters home to a certain Judicia. Phillips believes in the superior charm of Sweden and Finland; Aylmer prefers Norway and Denmark. Each writes to the fictitious judge, begging her to decide which one has established his case. The authors' valiant adherence to their epistolary device reduces almost half the book to mere amiable chatter.

> What should you say to the idea of studying a little Swedish history with me, with the help of the monuments of Stockholm? Some people I know consider monuments a great bore and hasten by them with scarcely a glance, but that is because they do not know the delightful stories that they can tell with their bronze or marble lips.

If this passage has charm, the book is full of that quality, for there are many more like it. Scandinavia, to be sure, does divide the book more than evenly with these chats with Judicia. The authors devote their attention, however, almost exclusively to the pictorial aspects of the countries and to their history. Their interest is content with the picturesque surface of the life that they see. For this reason, doubtless, the description of the ski slide at Holmenkollen is the most vivid and successful passage in the book. To persons who know nothing of the North, much of the retelling of its legend and story will doubtless be interesting, though few, even of such readers, will learn with surprise that Ibsen "is one of the most widely discussed dramatists of recent times." The writers, no doubt because of imperfect knowledge of Scandinavian languages, make no attempt to suggest to us the spirit of the people or the vital intellectual currents which have of late been thrilling the nations of the North. The book is provided with a map and a number of excellent photographs.

The question of the development of water power on navigable streams has for ten years been a theme for heated controversy among conservationists, and constitutes a Federal problem of which much will soon again be heard. The majority of Congress has always opposed the levying of tolls for power by the Government, while the Executive, during the Roosevelt and Taft Administrations, has generally favored such charges. President Wilson and Secretary Lane are, however, prepared to urge a series of bills which shall effect the removal of the obstacles to the free development of water power which are presented by existing regulation of dams. A full survey of the history of the question and of its legal aspects is given us in "Conservation of Water by Storage" (Yale University Press; $3 net), by George Fillmore Swain, who assumes the Western attitude of hostility to those radical conservationists opposing the Lane-Ferris measures. In his view the conservation movement has degenerated into a demand that our natural resources be retained by the Federal Government, and be permitted no development by private capital except under restrictive burdens. Convinced that the Federal Government has no legal right to hamper this activity by fees, he answers ably the arguments to the contrary presented by Presidents Roosevelt and Taft, and Secretaries Stimson and Fisher, showing that approval of vetoed measures like the bills for private dams on the Coosa and Connecticut would have saved large Federal expenditures for the improvement of navigation and promoted the conservation of the local coal supplies. In the cognate discussion of the political and economic consequences of monopoly of water power, Professor Swain demonstrates that from the point of view of efficiency, hydro-electric development is essentially monopolistic—in a recent utterance even ex-Secretary Fisher has admitted this—and that its control lies rather in the States' jurisdiction over rates and combinations of capital than in the Federal power to charge fees. The pronounced opinions of the writer do not make the book unfairly partisan. Indeed, the iniquity of the present General Dam act is so generally admitted that it would have been better to give more space to the debatable minor features of the reforms embodied in the Lane-Ferris bills, and less to an exposition of the general merits of the bills. The treatise is completed by some semi-technical chapters on dam construction, flood control, the relation between forests and stream flow, and the uses of stored water, which have little organic relation with the political portion of the volume. The lectures of which it is composed were delivered on the Lyman Foundation at the Sheffield Scientific School in 1914.

An "omnium gatherum" for those conscious of an early defective education is Frank H. Vizetelly's "Essentials of English Speech and Literature" (Funk & Wagnalls Company; $1.50). The origin and growth of our language is recounted with unexpected fulness, time being found for passages on the usual authors up to Milton. Quotations are made in the course of this survey from an imposing number of authorities of all degrees of expertness. But the linguistic predilections of the author gain fuller play in the remaining two-thirds of the volume. Changes in form and sense, the foreign element, the use of the dictionary—such topics are treated with some of the originality in the conclusions that one might expect of a life-long student of language. This lexicographer estimates that only a sixth of our present enormous total of words is derived from "Anglo-Saxon and English." He also believes that "every well-read person of fair ability and education will be able to define or to understand as used nearly or quite, perhaps, more than 50,000 words. And the same person in conversation and writing will command not fewer than 15,000 or 20,000, and can add 5,000 to 10,000 to these numbers if he be literarily inclined. The plain people, as Lincoln liked to call them, use or read understandingly from 8,000 to 10,000 words, according to their general intelligence and conversational power, while a person who can not read, but who has a good degree of native mental ability, will command about 5,000." Many other linguistic matters are discussed in this surprisingly comprehensive *vade mecum*—which even gives counsel on "Writing for Publication."

Interest in the drama of the Restoration and the eighteenth century would of late appear to be waxing. Following the volumes of the "Cambridge History" came Professor Nettleton's book covering the history of the period. Now the American Branch of the Oxford University Press offers a volume of selected plays under the editorship of Professors Frederick and James W. Tupper: "Representative English Dramas from Dryden to Sheridan" ($1.25). It has been prepared for students travelling for the first time over this somewhat unbeaten tract. There is no attempt to break new ground. The introductions furnish a discriminating selection from the well-established facts in very well-written paragraphs. A half century ago the style would have been called nervous. The critical passages are buoyed up by a sturdy but unobtrusive sense of humor, and ballasted by a solid fund of common-sense. The notes, wisely restrained in compass, help the reader over the essential obscurities. The bibliographies are a serviceable chart to further explorations. Not every special student will accept without comment the selection of the twelve plays here presented. But every reader will thank the publishers for the Cheltenham Bold in which the text of the plays is printed. In spite of the double columns the reading can be continued for hours without wearying the eyes.

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Science

Two volumes of the useful Cambridge Public Health series deal with "Flies in Relation to Disease," the one with non-bloodsucking, the other with bloodsucking flies. They come from the Cambridge University Press, and are respectively by G. S. Graham-Smith and Edward Hindle. Dr. Graham-Smith's book treats of the non-bloodsucking flies as distinguished from such insects as the mosquito or the tsetse fly, which can introduce an infection directly into the blood of their victims. Our public is perhaps already sufficiently well informed concerning the ordinary fly as a disease spreader through the activities of American investigators, and particularly through the publications of Dr. Howard, of the United States Department of Agriculture. The common housefly and all of his cousins have come to be recognized as a menace to health. The question to be determined for the fly is the full extent of the damage he may inflict upon man. Dr. Graham-Smith gives a sober detailed discussion of the whole matter. The structure and habits of the various flies are described, and the evidence that connects them with disease among men is presented and analyzed. It would seem that in temperate climates it is typhoid fever and the dreaded epidemics of summer diarrhœa that have been traced most clearly to the fly as a distributing agent. Something is lacking on the bacteriological side to clinch the proof, but the circumstantial evidence is very strong, strong enough surely to arouse public sentiment to the necessity of adopting the methods suggested to destroy this insect or at least to minimize his power of doing evil. At the end of the book some of the simpler feasible methods are described for dealing with the fly in crowded districts as well as in isolated houses. They are of a kind that can be followed readily by persons of intelligence who have some comprehension of the fly's *modus operandi* in the matters of feeding and breeding. The book has a full bibliography of the literature dealing with the subject, and it should be helpful in this and in other respects to physicians and sanitarians.

Mr. Hindle's volume is not written for the layman, for it is rather loaded down with technical terms. But the scientist, the sanitarian, or the physician will find in it a trustworthy account of all the recent important scientific investigations on the spread of disease through the agency of biting-flies. Of an entirely different character is Glenn W. Herrick's "Insects Injurious to the Household and Annoying to Man" (Macmillan; $1.75). It is written for the householder, is free from troublesome technical terms, and is abundantly illustrated. A great range of insects is considered, those that are a direct pest to man and those that indirectly affect his welfare by interfering with his food or his possessions. The book is well written and should be very helpful to those who are curious to learn something of the store of knowledge that science has been gathering for many years, and particularly in recent years, concerning these tiny but multitudinous animals and their influence on the health and wealth of mankind.

"Wealth from the Soil," by C. C. Bowsfield (Chicago: Forbes & Co.; $1), is a book with an occasion rather than an excuse for being. The author, who has had success with a similar book ("Making the Farm Pay"), here makes another of those fulsome and injudicious appeals to the city man to come "back to the land" which real farmers deplore. That there is a possible living in the small farm for men with business training, health, and willingness to work, is undoubtedly true. A probable fortune is a horse of another color. Here is a vast deal of trite remark about the advantages of the country over the city, much vague talk about the "golden era of business farming," and a plentiful supply of passages like: "Make the farm methods modern. Introduce a business system. Be energetic, wide-awake, thorough. Work to win. Command success," and so on. Also, we gather, the budding farmer should have a "pioneer wife," to whom he may assign a great many duties, such as care of poultry, of the kitchen garden, small fruits, and marketing; a good lot of sturdy, willing children, and a rule of working only ten hours a day. He need have only a few hundred dollars to begin with, and a large acreage is unnecessary: "The wealth hidden in the fertile bosom of twenty-five acres of land is virtually beyond calculation." For the rest, the book is made up of a jumble of statistics and directions derived from various sources, without credit. An example of the method is a series of paragraphs on ginseng culture, unaccountably admitted into a chapter on garden crops, and taken bodily and verbally from Farmers' Bulletin No. 551, issued by the Department of Agriculture in 1913.

"Practical Talks on Farm Engineering," by R. P. Clarkson (Doubleday, Page; $1), has been written, not for the purpose of luring the outsider into farming, but to help the practical farmer in his task. The writer, as consulting engineer for a well-known farm weekly, has had occasion to answer questions for many years. He has tried here to put in more general and permanent form his advice upon the subjects most commonly brought up. These are farm buildings, water supply and sewage disposal, farm power, drainage, and irrigation. There is a further chapter on miscellaneous matters, and a set of tables useful for engineering calculations. The illustrations are few and good. The chapers make up less a series of talks—they are hardly informal enough for that—than a compact and readable handbook in its department.

The publication of "The Quaternary Ice Age," by W. G. Wright, of the Geological Survey of Ireland (Macmillan; $5), almost coincidently with the death of Prof. James Geikie, of the University of Edinburgh, whose chief work, "The Great Ice Age," appeared in several successively enlarged editions, suggests that the position long held by the Scotch author as the chief representative of glacial geology in Great Britain, is now likely to pass to an Irish successor. Wright's book gives a somewhat detailed account of the glacial features of the British Isles, in which the distribution of peculiar erratics by deflected ice-streams, and the occurrence of proglacial lakes in Yorkshire as worked out by Kendall, deserve special commendation. This is followed by chapters on the Glaciation of Northern Europe, the Alps, and North America; quaternary glaciation in the southern hemisphere is not treated. Associated problems are: the quaternary lakes of Utah and Nevada, as worked out by our national Geological Survey; the distribution and origin of loess, in which insufficient emphasis is given to aggrading rivers, as supplying fine silt in their broad deposits; mammals and man in the glacial period; a cautiously inconclusive examination of the causes of glaciation, weakened by omission of ancient glacial periods, now so well proved in many lands; and a discussion of changes of level in Britain, Scandinavia, and North America, as a result of the weight of continental ice sheets, this being a subject to which Wright has made important contributions on the south coast of Ireland. The author shows himself widely informed and discriminately receptive, though, like some other British writers, he attributes to Murray in 1893 the discovery of the South Polar anticyclone, which the American meteorologist, Ferrel, had recognized some thirty years earlier. Like most British glacialists, he does not find convincing evidence of interglacial epochs in his own country, but he recognizes them in the Alps and in North America. The book is well illustrated with 49 maps, 106 figures, and 23 plates.

"The Earth, Its Life and Death," by Alphonse Berget, professor at the Institut Océanographique—presumably of Paris—has been translated into English by E. W. Barlow, F.R.A.S. (Putnam; $1.75). It is an interesting book, and tells many things about the origin and movements and activities of the earth in a manner that will leave "the general reader" in an exclamatory state over the marvels of nature here revealed; but it is also a regrettable book, because it is the work of an author who has too evidently "read up" astronomy and geology in preparation for his compilation, but who has not read very far up, so that he repeatedly makes definite assertions where more competent specialists would only offer qualified suggestions. His mental attitude seems credulous rather than critical; his style gives the impression that the results of science are all established, even to the point of predicting the future history of the earth! Among the obsolescent views, here presented as if they were universally current, is the idea that the quaternary glacial period was due to progressive refrigeration from initial incandescence; that Silurian is the oldest paleozoic formation; that "the bed of the sea has a relief like that of the land surface"; that "volcanoes and earthquakes are manifestations of the same cause"; that the circulation of the atmosphere has been fully explained; that the Gulf Stream is the indirect cause of the deserts of the Old World. Superficial statements include such a one as that flood tide and rising tide are the same; risky statements include such a one as that the eastward deviation of the southern continents is due to an inertia-twist during tetrahedral deformation. The book is, in a way, dangerous because it so confidently presents many uncertain conclusions.

Terrapin, lobster, and sweetbreads are naturally included in May E. Southworth's "Midnight Feasts" (San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.; $1.25), for those who eat at that hour are usually as regardless of expense as of health; but one need not look for directions concerning those three edibles in "Low Cost Recipes," by Edith Gwendolyn Harbison (Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.; 75 cents), which appeals to a much larger class. Both of these books are good, each in its way. The midnight feasts, though usually more costly, need only a chafing-dish for their preparation.

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Drama and Music

"THREE OF HEARTS."

Half satire, half quite seriously the sort of play held up to merriment, "Three of Hearts," which Martha Morton has adapted from Harold MacGrath's story, "Hearts and Masks," contains at least a few lively situations. Briefly, it tells the romantic story of the winning of a young Southern belle by a rich New York bachelor, who stoops to conquer by indulging the girl's humanitarian interest in crooks and passing himself off as a high-class thief. The particular object of the satire is the ever-present play of crime, which is alleged to have taken such hold on the young of both sexes. So the villain of the piece is a youth who from too frequent patronage of Broadway theatres has learned both the ease and the glory of fancy thievery.

George Nash, as the fake Baron, has a character part well suited to his talent, and succeeds in commanding every situation in which he appears. The briskest of these occupies the third act, which represents a fashionable masquerade ball on Long Island, offering, of course, a plentiful opportunity for abstracting valuable jewels. The fun of the whole play revolves around the girl's desire to reform the "Baron" and her pretty pique and temporary resentment when she discovers the tricks that have been practiced upon her. Besides Mr. Nash, the cast at the Thirty-ninth Street Theatre includes Frank J. Woods as chief detective, Schuyler Ladd as the misguided youth, Julia Hay as the heroine; other parts are acceptably filled by William Devereux, Ethel Winthrop, and Blanche Yurka. F.

Mr. Hagedorn's contribution to the peace-literature of the war, "Makers of Madness" (Macmillan; $1), is rather a crystallization of current ideas than an original creation. In three scenes he presents the view of war which every enlightened socialist and peace propagandist has ready on his lips. The familiar arguments attack us with effective emphasis and the heightened interest of dramatic form, but the play lacks the imaginative power necessary to raise it above the journalistic level. The first scene is laid in the capital of a militarist Iberia. A veteran Chief of Staff, who responds to the challenge of a map with the accuracy of a chess-player before a board; a tradition-bound Minister of War, the victim of the miltarist régime he has helped to build up, and an inflexible Prime Minister, whose unerring judgment has perceived the psychological moment for the attack, find the progress of their war-game temporarily thwarted by the ideals of a peaceful but weak young sovereign. The threat of the three to resign soon brings the King to submission, and the equanimity of his ministers is restored by an order for immediate mobilization. The characters have the clearness of familiar types; they are scarcely individual enough to hold our interest.

The same criticism may be brought against the vultures of the opposing Republic whom we meet in the second scene: Pollen, the owner of yellow newspapers; Conroy, the maker of guns; Grosvenor, the contractor for army supplies; Senator Taney and Representative Maynard, their tools, who hope to rise on the wave of jingo enthusiasm. They are all clear, too clear, these unscrupulous grabbers after money and power through the opportunities of war, against whom the futile threats of the peace-Senator are powerless. It is as if they were drawn in the headlines of one of Pollen's own newspapers. They lack shading, humanity, reality. They are swift pictures of the idea which produced them but they have no life of their own. The third scene, appended like the moral to the old moralities, gives us a glimpse of a battle-field—the cries of the wounded, and the voice of a woman asking, "How long, O Lord? How long?" The effectiveness of this on the stage must, of course, be determined by the skill of the producer. Read, it lacks the poignancy of a letter from the trenches. It has a stereotyped atmosphere which dulls our emotion. As peace propaganda Mr. Hagedorn's play is superior to the interminable sermon of Miss Dix's "Across the Border"; as a war play, to Mr. Barrie's trite and priggish trifle, "The Day." It is when we measure it against a piece like "The Mob" that we realize its crudity and superficiality. It is a thing of the moment, written on a first reaction, or "by request."

The third series of plays by John Galsworthy (Scribner; $1.35) includes "The Fugitive," "The Pigeon," and "The Mob." Of these the second, one of the most delightful of modern comedies, is too well known here to require more than this word of passing mention. The first, eminently characteristic of the author, both in its uncompromising directness in the treatment of a difficult and vital theme, and its liability to the charge of special pleading, depicts the tragedy of a revolting woman, victim of a loveless marriage, who, asserting the rights of personal liberty, defies social laws and conventions and finds in suicide the only escape from utter degradation. It is poignant drama, terribly logical in its sequences, and indisputably true in most of its details, but has no general application, because it is based upon a special and abnormal instance. One moral, however, it does enforce, and that is the potential slavery, in certain conditions, of a married woman incapable, in an emergency, of self-support. "The Mob," notable as it is for its literary skill and emotional and dramatic power, is chiefly remarkable for the high morality and the courageous purpose which inspired the writing of it. It carries a message of tremendous significance at this time, when patriotism is commonly quoted as a sufficient excuse for the denial of moral obligations and the perpetration of hideous wrongs against humanity. The force of it is not diminished by the fact that it was delivered before the present world war was begun or foreseen. The occasion of it was one of Great Britain's minor punitive expeditions, with its inevitable consequences of subjection and absorption. The thesis is that the only true patriotism is that which is rooted in justice and regard for the rights of others and which would scorn to make might or expediency the justification of national crime. His hero is an Under-Secretary of State, a successful and rising politician, who believes that the impending war is tyrannous and unworthy, a violation of the inalienable rights of a weaker people, and that nothing but dishonor can come of the victory which is assured. Too proud of his country's fair fame to connive at her commission of what he holds to be a cowardly and shameful act, he utters his protest in the House of Commons itself, knowing that by so doing he is committing political hara-kiri, and then proceeds to repeat it publicly through the country. He wins some converts, but is deserted by his friends, his constituents, his relatives, and finally his wife—whose father and brother are soldiers; is denounced in the press as the vilest of traitors; is hooted and spat upon by the mob, and, at last, is killed in a riot. Then comes the reaction and a monument is erected to his memory. Manifestly, a message of this sort has small chance of a hearing now. It is a plea for the observance by nations of principles supposed to be binding upon the individual members of civilized societies, of that Golden Rule which some of the best modern thought is beginning to acknowledge as the essence of the profoundest philosophy. When this war is over, and the cost has been counted, and sober thought regains its sway, "The Mob" will be accounted among the finest of Mr. Galsworthy's achievements. But there will be no money in it.

"A Scheme of Study for Country Violin Students," by L. Henderson Williams (Chas. Scribner's Sons; $1 net), consists, in part, of analyses of two sets of studies for the violin by Kreutzer and Léonard, which the author discusses from every point of view likely to be of interest to the learner, be he a beginner or more or less advanced. There is an abundance of hints as to the best way of practicing, but the author holds that an excess of muscular exercise is to be avoided. The pieces of Léonard he treats as studies of temperament rather than of technique. The second part of the volume contains miscellaneous papers on topics of interest to violin players, such as The Student's Fiddle, Accompanists, Waste of Time, First Appearances, Memorizing Studies, Importance of Bowing, Playing at Sight, etc.

While composers of music do not get even as much encouragement as poets, the woods are full of them. Most of them remember the dull and useless hours spent over their study of harmony. In "The Evolution of Harmony" (Oxford: Clarendon Press; 8s. 6d. net) C. H. Kitson points out why the old methods of teaching this branch of musical pedagogy are so unsatisfactory. One reason is that no attention was paid to ear-training, although it is manifestly absurd to attempt to write by rule what one cannot hear mentally. Dr. Kitson, who is an Oxford D.Mus. and has had twelve years' experience in teaching harmony, follows the lines of thought set forth in Dr. Shinn's "Harmony Based on Ear-Training" and introduces useful innovations of his own, while discarding the figured bass, which "does all the important thinking." Detailed analysis of his book would be too technical for these columns. To students it can be highly recommended.

A student of music opening at random Marie Withrow's "Some Staccato Notes for Singers" (Boston: Oliver Ditson Co.; $1) and reading the advice: "Practice diligently when you have a cold," would be likely to think the writer a fool; but she adds, after a pause: "Practice diligently—but without singing." The keynote of the little volume is sounded in that sentence, its aim being to emphasize the many things a great vocal artist must be besides being a singer. The whole book is made up of epigrams and short paragraphs condensing a good deal of common-sense, without always steering clear of the obvious and commonplace.

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Finance

TWO ANNOUNCEMENTS.

Closely as the attention of the financial community has been converged, this past week, on the critical aspects of our Government's negotiations with Germany, the Stock Exchange has nevertheless twice had its interest abruptly diverted from that absorbing subject. The Government's estimate on the coming wheat yield, given out last Tuesday, was recognized as of high importance in its bearing on the country's foreign trade and home prosperity during the rest of 1915. The decision of the lower Federal Court, last Thursday, in the anti-Trust suit against the Steel Corporation, was equally recognized as a landmark in the controversy between the Government and "Big Business." In an ordinary season, either of these events would have evoked immediate and continuing response on the financial markets. As it was, their effect was minimized by the larger uncertainties in international diplomacy; yet they contributed to the accumulating list of influences bearing favorably on this country's fortunes.

The particular interest which attached to the estimate of the coming wheat-crop arose from recognition of the great importance, to this country and to Europe, of an abundant yield, from the fact that this was the season's first report on the Northwestern spring wheat crop, and from the perplexing misgivings caused by last month's assertion, by the "private experts," of disastrous loss in the growing winter wheat. Tuesday's report was in all respects reassuring.

So far from confirming the stories of ruinous depredation by the insect pests, the "June condition" of the winter-wheat crop is reduced only 7 per cent. from that of May, whereas something like 5½ per cent. is the usual reduction for the period; last year's impairment of 3 per cent. having been exceptionally small. The area planted to spring wheat, now first reported, increases 1,250,000 acres over 1914, or 7 per cent., and is with one exception (the famous crop year 1901) the largest in our history. That crop's condition conforms to the hopeful expectations of the trade; the percentage being within ½ of 1 per cent. of last June's figures, and exceeding the month's estimate of condition in any but five or six of the fifteen past years.

Coming down to the more tangible basis of indicated yield, the Government forecast makes the total wheat crop indicated, as of the first of June, 950,000,000 bushels, whereas 900,000,000 was the estimate at this date in 1914. That forecast of a year ago turned out to be remarkably close to the final actual harvest. It is still too early to reckon on an equally agreeable result this year; but what can be said with confidence is that Nature has thus far treated the American farmer kindly, and has given a reasonable prospect of producing at least as large a harvest as the extraordinarily opportune "bumper crop" of the first year of European war.

Whether the decision in favor of the Steel Corporation could fairly be called unexpected, is debatable. The consensus of opinion among lawyers certainly has been, for some time past, that the Government would lose the suit. The strength of the Steel Corporation's case, in its proof that the business of independent competitors had increased at a much larger rate than the business of the billion-dollar corporation, and the absence of any evidence of oppressive methods such as the Oil and Tobacco Trusts employed, had been recognized long before it was shown in court opinions of last Thursday. Nevertheless, the general public was in doubt; it dislikes "buying into a lawsuit," and the news itself was of the sort which usually has immediate effect on financial sentiment.

The reaction even in prices for the "Steel shares," after their sudden and violent advance on the first news of the decision, may have been due to consideration of the fact that the case has still to go before the Supreme Court. But it is perfectly fair to class the decision of Thursday as an indication, like the reconsideration last autumn of the rate case by the Interstate Commission, that the attitude of the Government and the courts is becoming less hostile towards large enterprises. If the Steel case had been adjudicated, say in 1903 or even in 1909, the chances of an adverse decision would have been much greater. This, however, is not so much because the Government's point of view has changed as because of a change in the attitude of the corporations. The necessity for restriction and prohibition, and for compulsory dissolution as a means to them, is perfectly well known not to be the same to-day as it was ten years ago.

Whatever else it accomplishes, the Federal Court's decision in favor of the Steel Corporation ought to help towards brushing away some exceedingly foolish misconceptions. Promoters and managers of the existing large concerns have very generally taken the view, first, that the country could not prosper while the Anti-Trust law was being enforced, and, next, that when Government should come to its senses, the big combinations would again be allowed to do pretty much what they should see fit. The absurdities uttered by Mr. Roosevelt, among others, as to the purpose of driving us back to the "blacksmith's forge" and the "business expedients of fifty years ago," were a variant on these "inside" views.

Not one of these notions finds the least confirmation in the opinion, last Thursday, of the Federal Court, which recognizes the public usefulness of large business organizations when properly conducted, which admits the test of legitimate benefits to business progress as a point in favor of any combination; which rejects altogether the strange idea that any union of interstate enterprises is criminal conspiracy, but which also conditions all these conclusions, in a given case, on the supposition that the company deals fairly with competitors, does not secretly conspire to maintain artificial prices, and does not attempt monopoly. There is not much to shock the conservative mind in this. But there is also nothing to bear out the jubilant prediction of some amateur Wall Street statesmen, when they first learned of the decision, that it would mean withdrawal by the Government of all other anti-Trust suits, and reversion to the conditions which prevailed in 1899 and 1901.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Artzibashef, M. The Millionaire. Huebsch. $1.25 net.
Chambrun, Countess de. Pieces of the Game. Putnam.
Webling, P. Edgar Chirrup. Putnam.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Altgeld, J. P. Oratory. Privately printed.
Bosanquet, B. Three Lectures on Æsthetic. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Fay, L. E., and Eaton, A. T. Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries. Boston: The Boston Book Co.
Home University Library: Belgium. Milton. Political Thought in England. A History of Philosophy. Holt. 50 cents net each.
Moulton, L. B. Short Stories. Riverside Literature Series. Houghton Mifflin. 40 cents net.
Nason, A. H. James Shirley, Dramatist. New York: Arthur H. Nason.
Richardson, G. E. A Neglected Aspect of the English Romantic Revolt. Berkeley, Cal.: University of California Press.
The Tokio Imperial University Calendar. 1913-1914. Tokio: The University.
Warren, W. P. Thoughts on Business. Chicago: Forbes & Co. $1 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Constant, P. H. B. d'E. de. America and Her Problems. Macmillan. $2 net.
Dewey, J. German Philosophy and Politics. Holt. $1.25 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Aulard, A. La Paix Future. Paris: Librairie Armand Colin.
Hedin, Sven. With the German Armies in the West. Lane.
Innes, A. D. A History of England and the British Empire. Vol. IV. Macmillan.
Luther, S. Livingston. 1864-1914. Anonymous. Privately printed.
Macaulay's History of England. Edited by C. H. Firth. Vol. VI. Macmillan. $3.25 net.
Sykes, P. M. History of Persia. Vols. I and II. Macmillan. $15 net.
Thurstan, V. Field Hospital and Flying Column. Putnam.
Walling, W. E. The Socialist and the War. Holt. $1.50 net.
Washburn, S. Field Notes from the Russian Front. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Waxweiler, E. La Belgique neutre et loyale. Paris: Librairie Payot & Co.

POETRY.

Law, F. H. Selections from American Poetry. Riverside Literature Series. Houghton Mifflin. 25 cents net.

SCIENCE.

Phillpotts, E. My Shrubs. Lane. $3 net.
Sears, C. E. Bronson Alcott's Fruitlands. Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.

DRAMA AND MUSIC.

Cowan, S. The State Forbids. Mitchell Kennerley. 60 cents net.
Inch, M. E., and Rhys-Herbert, W. The Bo'sn's Bride. New York: J. Fischer & Bro.

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Jonson, B., and Snell, F. M. A Tale of a Tub. Longmans, Green. $2.50 net.
Tagore, R., and Carpenter, J. A. Gitanjali. G. Schirmer.

TEXTBOOKS.

Boyce, E. M. Enunciation and Articulation. Boston: Ginn. 30 cents.

Judd, C. H. Psychology of High School Subjects. Boston: Ginn. $1.50 net.
Lincoln, L. I. Everyday Pedagogy. Boston: Ginn. $1 net.

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